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LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 20, 1853.

REVIEWS.

The Stones of Venice. Volume the Third. The Fall. By John Ruskin. Smith, Elder and Co.

IN this volume Mr. Ruskin concludes his task by tracing the causes and manner of the corruption of Gothic architecture, and reviewing the various phases of corruption through which the architecture of Europe has passed down to the present time. Less fertile than the previous volumes in those magnificent descriptions which made them a gallery of Venetian landscape of matchless interest and brilliancy, the present is less likely to attract the general reader; but it is in no respect inferior in depth and boldness of thought, in subtlety of analysis, and ardent energy and force of language. Whatever we may think of the soundness of many of the details of Mr. Ruskin's general argument, or however little we may admire the dogmatism and intolerance which break out more unpleasantly than ever in the concluding chapters of his work, it is impossible not to reap abundant delight from his pages, in the noble moral tone which glows throughout, and the endless provocatives to thought and fancy which he scatters profusely as he goes. Iconoclasts must strike hard; and with his strong convictions that art, especially in architecture, has for the last three centuries been proceeding in the wrong direction, it is not to be wondered at if Mr. Ruskin should, upon occasion, strain his argument farther than the facts bear him out, and fall into inconsistencies on which his adversaries may triumphantly seize. That he finds a value and significance in the old Gothic architecture beyond its true merits, and greatly underrates the Italian, or, as he calls it, the Pagan School, will no doubt be the general conclusion. At the same time, it is impossible to estimate too highly the service to the cause of art which such a writer pays, by pointing out with such admirable force of exposition the qualities which give to the old Gothic architecture that power of fascinating and impressing the mind and heart, which is possessed in an equal degree by no other architecture, and by recalling so vividly the principles which regulate the production of every work by which the soul of the true artist speaks to the souls of his fellow men. In this age of mechanical dexterity such a writer is sure of many opponents. He strikes at the root of the bad art on which thousands live, and by which public taste is hourly corrupted. Let but a tithe of Mr. Ruskin's convictions find their way into people's minds—and find their way they will, for they are based in truth—and what becomes of nine-tenths of the rubbish, in pictures and engravings, which are now-a-days patronised under the name of the fine arts; what, moreover, becomes of the reputations of many of the architects who have made our streets and public buildings the laughing-stock of Europe? Were this Luther of art one whit less eloquent, or less unsparing, his chance would be but slight of compelling his contemporaries to give their minds strongly, and with right purpose, to the investigation of the principles of art. As it is, he forces his reader to observe and to reflect, and no man, however previously ignorant in matters of taste, can lay down this work without having received certain great guiding lights, which will ever afterwards

make him look upon a picture, a statue, or a building, with intelligent eyes. Feeling this strongly as we do, we are content to leave others to rebuke Mr. Ruskin's dogmatism, and assail him on his weak points; and to dwell only on those portions of his books where all must listen earnestly to his teaching with advantage.

In an explanatory note at the close of this volume Mr. Ruskin accepts the charge made by his critics, that if he be right, all the architects and all the architectural teaching of the last three hundred years must have been wrong. That there may be no mistake on this point, he states it expressly as his belief that the architects of the last three centuries have been wrong—"wrong without exception; wrong totally, and from the foundation."

"This is exactly the point I have been endeavouring to prove, from the beginning of this work to the end of it. But as it seems not yet to have been stated clearly enough, I will here try to put my entire theorem into an unmistakable form."

"The various nations who attained eminence in the arts before the time of Christ, each of them, produced forms of architecture which in their various degrees of merit were almost exactly indicative of the degrees of intellectual and moral energy of the nations which originated them; and each reached its greatest perfection at the time when the true energy and prosperity of the people who had invented it were at their culminating point. Many of these various styles of architecture were good, considered in relation to the times and races which gave birth to them; but none were absolutely good or perfect, or fitted for the practice of all future time."

"The advent of Christianity for the first time rendered possible the full development of the soul of man, and therefore the full development of the arts of man."

"Christianity gave birth to a new architecture, not only immeasurably superior to all that had preceded it, but demonstrably the best architecture that can exist; perfect in construction and decoration, and fit for the practice of all time."

"This architecture, commonly called 'Gothic,' though in conception perfect, like the theory of a Christian character, never reached an actual perfection, having been retarded and corrupted by various adverse influences; but it reached its highest perfection, hitherto manifested, about the close of the thirteenth century, being then indicative of a peculiar energy in the Christian mind of Europe."

"In the course of the fifteenth century, owing to various causes which I have endeavoured to trace in the preceding pages, the Christianity of Europe was undermined; and a Pagan architecture was introduced, in imitation of that of the Greeks and Romans."

"The architecture of the Greeks and Romans themselves was not good, but it was natural; and, as I said before, good in some respects, and for a particular time."

"But the imitative architecture introduced first in the fifteenth century, and practised ever since, was neither good nor natural. It was good in no respect, and for no time. All the architects who have built in that style have built what was worthless; and therefore the greater part of the architecture which has been built for the last three hundred years, and which we are now building, is worthless. We must give up this style totally, despise it and forget it, and build henceforward only in that perfect and Christian style hitherto called Gothic, which is everlastingly the best."

"This is the theorem of these volumes."

And a startling theorem it certainly is, sweeping into condemnation, as it does, St. Peter's itself, and all the buildings of modern times, which for the last three centuries the world have looked to with wonder and admiration. Mr. Ruskin should have gone more into detail than he has done in his objections to

the great examples of the Italian school, for in this part of his subject he has confined himself chiefly to general assertions, which do little more than show that the style of Michael Angelo, Palladio, or Inigo Jones, is repugnant to his peculiar taste in architecture, which sees excellence only in one direction. The necessities of modern life, not less than its pride and ostentation, gave rise to new forms of structure, to which the Gothic under any conceivable modification is inapplicable. Mr. Ruskin may, as in his chapter on the Roman Renaissance in this volume, establish a good case against the depraved taste in monumental architecture which came in with the fifteenth century; and Italy, and every other country in Europe, will furnish endless examples of churches, reared at infinite cost, where everything is wanting which should be chiefly present in a Christian church. But it is surely bigotry in the last degree, which refuses to recognise in many of the public buildings of modern Europe a nobility and fitness as admirable in their kind as are to be found in those Venetian examples on which Mr. Ruskin's devotion is built. It is a great drawback upon the value of these volumes, that Mr. Ruskin should not have gone into the proof of his own theory, and considered in detail some of the great buildings of the period which he condemns. Had he dealt with these in the same style of exquisite criticism which he has bestowed upon the sepulchral monuments of Venice, contrasting them with examples of a purer period, he might, indeed, have failed to convince, but he would, at all events, have placed his readers in a better position for judging how far his views were borne out by the truth. Unfortunately, he assumes to have proved what we do not say might not be proved, but is, in fact, only asserted; and having done this, he must not be surprised to find but few converts to the novel and extreme creed embodied in the concluding paragraphs of this work, that the ancient Gothic is alone admirable and proper for the wants of all modern architecture, and that all others, without exception, must be at once and for ever discarded. Amid a condemnation so sweeping of all existing models and practice, it is, however, satisfactory to find that Mr. Ruskin has a faith in the possible revival of a noble style of architecture in England, and that, deeply as we have sunk in degradation, we may yet—

"With the help of modern wealth and science, do things like Giotto's campanile, instead of like our own rude Cathedrals, but better than Giotto's campanile, inasmuch as we may adopt the pure and perfect forms of the northern Gothic, and work them out with the Italian refinement. It is hardly possible at present to imagine what may be the splendour of buildings designed in the forms of English and French thirteenth century surface Gothic, and wrought out with the refinement of Italian art in the details, and with a deliberate intention, since we cannot have figure-sculpture, to display in them the beauty of every flower and herb of the English fields, each by each; doing as much for every tree that roots itself in our rocks, and every blossom that drinks our summer rains, as our ancestors did for the oak, the ivy, and the rose. Let this be the object of our ambition, and let us begin to approach it, not ambitiously, but in all ability, accepting help from the feeblest hands; and the London of the nineteenth century may yet become as Venice without her despotism, and Florence without her dispeace."

Should such a result ever be attained, it will be greatly due to the influence of Mr. Ruskin's teaching; for whether we agree with

him or not in all his conclusions, there can be no doubt as to the immense gain to the cause of true criticism, and the development of a proper system of artistic training, which his writings are calculated to effect.

We have not now for the first time to tell our readers that this is a book which every educated man who can should study deliberately, for he will find in it matter bearing closely upon all that is best and highest in human duty and human thought, and which it is the intimate concern of all to know and meditate, whether lovers of art or not. No extracts can give an idea of its wealth in knowledge, in thought, and in picturesque vigour. Its best passages are, moreover, so essentially parts of a great continuous argument, that they cannot be separated without injury. We therefore select some valuable general ideas on the subject of education, which are put with a clearness and force peculiar to Mr. Ruskin:—

"By a large body of the people of England and of Europe a man is called educated if he can write Latin verses and construe a Greek chorus. By some few more enlightened persons it is confessed that the construction of hexameters is not in itself an important end of human existence; but they say, that the general discipline which a course of classical reading gives to the intellectual powers, is the final object of our scholastic institutions.

"But it seems to me there is no small error even in this last and more philosophical theory. I believe, that what it is most honourable to know, it is also most profitable to learn; and that the science which it is the highest power to possess, it is also the best exercise to acquire.

"And if this be so, the question as to what should be the material of education, becomes singularly simplified. It might be matter of dispute what processes have the greatest effect in developing the intellect; but it can hardly be disputed what facts it is most advisable that a man entering into life should accurately know.

"I believe, in brief, that he ought to know three things:

"First. Where he is.

"Secondly. Where he is going.

"Thirdly. What he had best do, under those circumstances.

"First. Where he is.—That is to say, what sort of a world he has got into; how large it is; what kind of creatures live in it, and how; what it is made of, and what may be made of it.

"Secondly. Where he is going.—That is to say, what chances or reports there are of any other world besides this; what seems to be the nature of that other world, and whether, for information respecting it, he had better consult the Bible, Koran, or Council of Trent.

"Thirdly. What he had best do under those circumstances.—That is to say, what kind of faculties he possesses; what are the present state and wants of mankind; what is his place in society; and what are the readiest means in his power of attaining happiness and diffusing it. The man who knows these things, and who has had his will so subdued in the learning them, that he is ready to do what he knows he ought, I should call educated; and the man who knows them not,—uneducated, though he could talk all the tongues of Babel.

"Our present European system of so-called education ignores, or despises, not one, nor the other, but all the three, of these great branches of human knowledge.

"First: It despises Natural History.—Until within the last year or two, the instruction in the physical sciences given at Oxford consisted of a course of twelve or fourteen lectures on the Elements of Mechanics or Pneumatics, and permission to ride out to Shotover with the Professor of Geology. I do not know the specialties of the system pursued in the academies of the Continent; but their practical result is, that unless a man's natural instincts urge him to the pursuit of the physical sciences too strongly to be resisted, he enters into

life utterly ignorant of them. I cannot, within my present limits, even so much as count the various directions in which this ignorance does evil. But the main mischief of it is, that it leaves the greater number of men without the natural food which God intended for their intellects. For one man who is fitted for the study of words, fifty are fitted for the study of things, and were intended to have a perpetual, simple, and religious delight in watching the processes, or admiring the creatures, of the natural universe. Deprived of this source of pleasure, nothing is left to them but ambition or dissipation; and the vices of the upper classes of Europe are, I believe, chiefly to be attributed to this single cause.

"Secondly: It despises Religion.—I do not say it despises 'Theology,' that is to say, *Talk about God*. But it despises 'Religion;' that is to say, the 'binding' or training to God's service. There is much talk and much teaching in all our academies, of which the effect is not to bind, but to loosen, the elements of religious faith. Of the ten or twelve young men who, at Oxford, were my especial friends, who sat with me under the same lectures on Divinity, or were punished with me for missing lecture by being sent to evening prayers, four are now zealous Romanists,—a large average out of twelve; and while thus our own universities profess to teach Protestantism, and do not, the universities on the Continent profess to teach Romanism, and do not,—sending forth only rebels and infidels. During long residence on the Continent, I do not remember meeting with above two or three young men, who either believed in revelation, or had the grace to hesitate in the assertion of their infidelity.

"Whence, it seems to me, we may gather one of two things; either that there is nothing in any European form of religion so reasonable or ascertained, as that it can be taught securely to our youth, or fastened in their minds by any rivets of proof which they shall not be able to loosen the moment they begin to think; or else, that, no means are taken to train them in such demonstrable creeds.

"It seems to me the duty of a rational nation to ascertain (and to be at some pains in the matter) which of these suppositions is true; and, if indeed no proof can be given of any supernatural fact, or Divine doctrine, stronger than a youth just out of his teens can overthrow in the first stirrings of serious thought, to confess this boldly; to get rid of the expense of an Establishment, and the hypocrisy of a Liturgy; to exhibit its cathedrals as curious memorials of a by-gone superstition, and, abandoning all thoughts of the next world, to set itself to make the best it can of this.

"But if, on the other hand, there *does* exist any evidence by which the probability of certain religious facts may be shown, as clearly, even, as the probabilities of things not absolutely ascertained in astronomical or geological science, let this evidence be set before all our youth so distinctly, and the facts for which it appears inculcated upon them so steadily, that although it may be possible for the evil conduct of after life to efface, or for its earnest and protracted meditation to modify, the impressions of early years, it may not be possible for our young men, the instant they emerge from their academies, to scatter themselves like a flock of wild fowl risen out of a marsh, and drift away on every irregular wind of heresy and apostasy.

"Lastly: Our system of European education despises Politics.—That is to say, the science of the relations and duties of men to each other. One would imagine, indeed, by a glance at the state of the world, that there was no such science. And, indeed, it is one still in its infancy.

"It implies, in its full sense, the knowledge of the operations of the virtues and vices of men upon themselves and society; the understanding of the ranks and offices of their intellectual and bodily powers in their various adaptations to art, science, and industry; the understanding of the proper offices of art, science, and labour themselves, as well as of the foundations of jurisprudence, and broad principles of commerce; all this being coupled

with the practical knowledge of the present state and wants of mankind.

"What, it will be said, and is all this to be taught to school-boys? No; but the first elements of it, all that are necessary to be known by an individual in order to his acting wisely in any station of life, might be taught, not only to every school-boy, but to every peasant. The impossibility of equality among men; the good which arises from their inequality; the compensating circumstances in different states and fortunes; the honourableness of every man who is worthily filling his appointed place in society, however humble; the proper relations of poor and rich, governor and governed; the nature of wealth, and mode of its circulation; the difference between productive and unproductive labour; the relation of the products of the mind and hand; the true value of works of the higher arts, and the possible amount of their production; the meaning of 'Civilization,' its advantages and dangers; the meaning of the term 'Refinement;' the possibilities of possessing refinement in a low station, and of losing it in a high one; and, above all, the significance of almost every act of a man's daily life, in its ultimate operation upon himself and others;—all this might be, and ought to be, taught to every boy in the kingdom, so completely, that it should be just as impossible to introduce an absurd or licentious doctrine among our adult population, as a new version of the multiplication table. Nor am I altogether without hope that some day it may enter into the heads of the tutors of our schools to try whether it is not as easy to make an Eton boy's mind as sensitive to falseness in policy, as his ear is at present to falseness in prosody.

"I know that this is much to hope. That English ministers of religion should ever come to desire rather to make a youth acquainted with the powers of Nature and of God, than with the powers of Greek particles; that they should ever think it more useful to show him how the great universe rolls upon its course in heaven, than how the syllables are fitted in a tragic metre; that they should hold it more advisable for him to be fixed in the principles of religion than in those of syntax, or, finally, that they should ever come to apprehend that a youth likely to go straight out of college into parliament, might not unadvisedly know as much of the Peninsula as of the Peloponnesian War, and be as well acquainted with the state of Modern Italy as of old Etruria;—all this, however unreasonable, I *do* hope, and mean to work for. For though I have not yet abandoned all expectation of a better world than this, I believe this in which we live is not so good as it might be. I know there are many people who suppose French revolutions, Italian insurrections, Caffre wars, and such other scenic effects of modern policy, to be among the normal conditions of humanity. I know there are many who think the atmosphere of rapine, rebellion, and misery which wraps the lower orders of Europe more closely every day, is as natural a phenomenon as a hot summer. But God forbid! There are ills which flesh is heir to, and troubles to which man is born; but the troubles which he is born to are as sparks which fly upward, not as flames burning to the nethermost Hell. The Poor we must have with us always, and sorrow is inseparable from any hour of life; but we may make their poverty such as shall inherit the earth, and the sorrow, such as shall be hallowed by the hand of the Comforter, with everlasting comfort. We *can*, if we will but shake off this lethargy and dreaming that is upon us, and take the pains to think and act like men, we can, I say, make kingdoms to be like well-governed households, in which, indeed, while no care or kindness can prevent occasional heart-burnings, nor any foresight or piety anticipate all the vicissitudes of fortune, or avert every stroke of calamity, yet the unity of their affection and fellowship remains unbroken, and their distress is neither embittered by division, prolonged by imprudence, nor darkened by dishonour.

"The great leading error of modern times is the mistaking erudition for education. I call it the

leading error, for I believe that, with little difficulty, nearly every other might be shown to have root in it; and, most assuredly, the worst that are fallen into on the subject of art.

"Education then, briefly, is the leading human souls to what is best, and making what is best out of them; and these two objects are always attainable together, and by the same means; the training which makes men happiest in themselves, also makes them most serviceable to others."

The present volume contains an index, or *Catalogue Raisonné* of all the most remarkable buildings and pictures in Venice, which will form an invaluable manual to all lovers of art in their researches there. Mr. Ruskin revels in describing the great works of Titian and Tintoret, and their colours seem to glow anew upon his page. His descriptions—of the latter especially—are indeed pictures, and it will hereafter add a new and exquisite zest to the treasures of the Scuola di San Rocco, and the churches and galleries of Venice to be able to study them side by side with the great originals. Those who cannot taste that pleasure will do well to enrich their imaginations with the vivid delineations of Mr. Ruskin's pen.

A Lady's Visit to the Gold Diggings of Australia in 1852-3. By Mrs. Charles Clacy. Hurst and Blackett.

Of all the books that have been written on the Gold Diggings of Australia, this single light volume by a lady, "belonging to the pocket-edition of the feminine sex," is the most pithy and entertaining. The authoress went out as Miss E—, a sprightly Amazon, in a wide-awake,—lolling on a dray, however, instead of riding on horseback,—and after a successful routine of adventures, along with a brother and party of friends, at Bendigo, the Black Forest, Eagle Hawk Gully, Iron Bark Gully, Forest Creek, and Ballarat, came home (after a change, purely personal, which made the brother's protection no longer needed) Mrs. Charles Clacy, full of pleasing and congenial feelings. The first impressions of Australia on landing were rather discouraging. The gold-seekers were packed into "a long tumble-to-pieces-looking waggon, not covered in, with a plank down each side to sit upon," and passed on their way to Melbourne through "mud and swamp—swamp and mud—relieved here and there by some few trees that looked starved and miserable," but on arriving there all was bustle and money-making. One of the party sold a six-barrelled revolver, for which he had given sixty shillings at Baker's, in Fleet-street, for sixteen pounds, and a speculator in boots soon realized a profit of ninety pounds by the sale of some very second-rate ones at four pounds a pair:—

"Labour was at a very high price: carpenters, boot and shoemakers, tailors, wheelwrights, joiners, smiths, glaziers, and, in fact, all useful trades, were earning from twenty to thirty shillings a day—the very men working on the roads could get eleven shillings per diem, and many a gentleman, in this disarranged state of affairs, was glad to fling old habits aside and turn his hand to whatever came readiest. I knew one in particular, whose brother is at this moment serving as colonel in the army in India, a man more fitted for a gay London life than a residence in the colonies. The diggings were too dirty and uncivilized for his taste; his capital was quickly dwindling away beneath the expenses of the comfortable life he led at one of the best hotels in town, so he turned to what as a boy he had learnt for amusement, and obtained an addition to his income of more than four hundred pounds a-year as house-carpenter.

In the morning you might see him trudging off to his work, and before night might meet him at some ball or *soirée* among the *élite* of Melbourne."

Bendigo was fixed upon as the first place of adventure. A hundred pounds was given for a dray, a hundred and ninety for two strong cart horses, and investments were made in flour, tea, &c., with the view of recovering this outlay in profit at the diggings. All sorts of stores, tents, and canvas, camp-ovens, cooking utensils, tin plates and pannikins, opossum rugs and blankets, cradles, &c. &c., were provided, and each man carried his swag:—

"The weight of one of these 'swags' is far from light; the provender for the road is itself by no means trifling, though that of course diminishes by the way and lightens the load a little. Still there are the blankets, fire-arms, drinking and eating apparatus, clothing, chamois-leather for the gold that has yet to be dug, and numberless other cumbersome articles necessary for the digger. In every belt was stuck either a large knife or a tomahawk; two shouldered their guns (by the bye, rather imprudent, as the sight of fire-arms often brings down at attack); some had thick sticks, fit to fell a bullock; altogether, we seemed well prepared to encounter an entire army of bushrangers. I felt tolerably comfortable perched upon our dray, amid a mass of other soft lumber, a bag of flour formed an easy support to lean against; on either side I was well walled in by the canvas and poles of our tent; a large cheese made a convenient footstool. My attire, although well suited for the business on hand, would hardly have passed muster in any other situation. A dress of common dark blue serge, a felt wide-awake, and a waterproof coat wrapped round me, made a ludicrous assortment."

The first night's encampment was hard and rough, similar to what has been described by previous travellers. At a more advanced stage of the journey the night was pleasanter and more inspiring:—

"As we advanced, the thickly-wooded sides of Mount Macedon became more distinct, and our proximity to a part of the country which we knew to be auriferous, exercised an unaccountable yet pleasurable influence over our spirits, which was perhaps increased by the loveliness of the spot where we now pitched our tents for the evening. It was at the foot of the gap. The stately gum-tree, the shea-oak, with its gracefully drooping foliage, the perfumed yellow blossom of the mimosa, the richly-wooded mountain in the background, united to form a picture too magnificent to describe. The ground was carpeted with wild flowers; the sarsaparilla blossoms creeping everywhere; before us slowly rippled a clear streamlet, reflecting a thousand times the deepening tints which the last rays of the setting sun flung over the surrounding scenery; the air rang with the cawing of the numerous cockatoos and parrots of all hues and colours, who made the woods resound with their tones, whilst their restless movements and gay plumage gave life and piquancy to the scene. This night our beds were composed of the mimosa, which has a perfume like the hawthorn. The softest-looking branches were selected, cut down, and flung upon the ground beneath the tents, and formed a bed which, to my wearied limbs, appeared the softest and most luxuriant upon which I had slept since my arrival in the colonies."

On approaching Bendigo, Mrs. Clacy thus notes her first impressions of the diggings:—

"The timber here is very large. Here we first beheld the majestic iron bark, *Eucalypti*, the trunks of which are fluted with the exquisite regularity of a Doric column; they are in truth the noblest ornaments of these mighty forests. A few miles further, and the diggings themselves burst upon our view. Never shall I forget that scene, it well repaid a journey even of sixteen thousand miles. The trees had been all cut down; it looked like a sandy plain, or one vast unbroken succession

of countless gravel pits—the earth was everywhere turned up—men's heads in every direction were popping up and down from their holes. Well might an Australian writer, in speaking of Bendigo, term it 'The Carthage of the Tyre of Forest Creek.' The rattle of the cradle, as it swayed to and fro, the sounds of the pick and shovel, the busy hum of so many thousands, the innumerable tents, the stores with large flags hoisted above them, flags of every shape, colour, and nation, from the lion and unicorn of England to the Russian eagle, the strange yet picturesque costume of the diggers themselves, all contributed to render the scene novel in the extreme."

So much having been written already on the kind of life which is characteristic of these localities and scenes, the authoress wisely limits her descriptions to generalities:—

"The stores at the diggings are large tents, generally square or oblong, and everything required by a digger can be obtained for money, from sugar-candy to potted anchovies; from East India pickles to Bass's pale ale; from ankle jack-boots to a pair of stays; from a baby's cap to a cradle; and every apparatus for mining, from a pick to a needle. But the confusion—the din—the medley—what a scene for a shop-walker! Here lies a pair of herrings dripping into a bag of sugar, or a box of raisins; there a gay-looking bundle of ribbons beneath two tumblers, and a half-finished bottle of ale. Cheese and butter, bread and yellow soap, pork and currants, saddles and frocks, wide-awakes and blue serge shirts, green veils and shovels, baby linen and tallow candles, are all heaped indiscriminately together; added to which, there are children bawling, men swearing, store-keeper sulky, and last, not least, women's tongues going nineteen to the dozen."

The diggers had on one occasion a lucky 'find,' but lost much time subsequently digging holes in the vicinity of the lucky spot, without success:—

"Saturday, October 2.—This day found the four hard at work at an early hour, and words will not describe our delight when they hit upon a 'pocket' full of the precious metal. The 'pocket' was situated in a dark corner of the hole, and William was the one whose fossicking-knife first brought its hidden beauties to light. Nugget after nugget did that dirty soil give up; by evening they had taken out five pounds' weight of gold. As the next day was the Sabbath, thirty-six hours of suspense must elapse before we could know whether this was but a passing kindness from the fickle goddess, or the herald of continued good fortune. This night, for the first time, we were really in dread of an attack, though we had kept our success quite secret, not even mentioning it to our shipmates; nor did we intend to do so until Monday morning, when our first business would be to mark out three more claims round the lucky spot, and send our gold down to the escort-office for security. For the present we were obliged to content ourselves with 'planting' it—that is, burying it in the ground; and not a footstep passed in our neighbourhood without our imagining ourselves robbed of the precious treasure, and as it was Saturday night—the noisiest and most riotous at the diggings—our panics were neither few nor far between. So true it is that riches entail trouble and anxiety on their possessor."

The party was well organised, and worked together in admirable harmony, under the following charter of incorporation:—

"1. No one party to be ruler; but every week by turn, one to buy, sell, take charge of gold, and transact all business matters.

"2. The gold to be divided, and accounts settled every Saturday night.

"3. Any one voluntarily leaving the party, to have one-third of his original share in the expense of purchasing tent and tools returned to him, but to have no further claim upon them or upon the gold that may be found after his withdrawal. Any

one dismissed the party for misconduct, to forfeit all claim upon the joint property.

"4. The party agree to stand by one another in all danger, difficulty, or illness.

"5. Swearing, gambling, and drinking spirits, to be strictly avoided.

"6. Morning service to be read every Sunday morning.

"7. All disputes or appeals from the foregoing rules to be settled by a majority."

After a round of somewhat profitable experience in the localities already mentioned, the digging party returned to Melbourne, but not without a desperate and hazardous encounter with some bushrangers, which forms a dramatic episode in the narrative. We pass this, however, for a description of the town of Melbourne:—

"It was on Monday, the 25th of October, that for the second time I entered Melbourne. Not many weeks had elapsed since I had quitted it for my adventurous trip to the diggings, yet in that short space of time how many changes had taken place. The cloudy sky was exchanged for a brilliant sunshine, the chilling air for a truly tropical heat, the drizzling rain for clouds of thick cutting dust, sometimes as thick as a London fog, which penetrated the most substantial veil, and made our skins smart terribly. The streets too had undergone a wondrous transformation. Collins-street looked quite bright and cheerful, and was the fashionable promenade of those who had time or inclination for lounging. Parties of diggers were constantly starting or arriving; trips to St. Kilda and Brighton were daily taking place; and a coach was advertised to run to the diggings! I cannot quite realize the terrified passengers being driven through the Black Forest, but can picture their horror when ordered to 'bail up' by a party of Australian Turpins.

"In every window—milliners, baby-linen warehouses, &c., included—was exhibited the usual advertisement of the gold buyer—namely, a heap of gold in the centre, on one side a pile of sovereigns, on the other bank-notes. The most significant advertisement was one I saw in a window in Collins-street. In the middle was a skull perforated by a bullet, which lay at a little distance as if coolly examining or speculating on the mischief it had done. On one side of the skull was a revolver, and on the other a quantity of nuggets. Above all, was the emphatic inscription, 'Beware in time.' This rather uncomfortable-looking tableau signified—in as speaking a manner as symbols can—that the unfortunate skull had once belonged to some more unfortunate lucky digger, who not having had the sense to sell his gold to the proprietor of this attractive window, had kept his nuggets in his pocket, thereby tempting some robbers—significantly personified by the revolver—to shoot him, and steal the gold. Nowhere could you turn your eye without meeting '30,000 ozs. wanted immediately; highest price given,' '10,000 ozs. wanted to consign per ———; extra price given to immediate sellers,' &c. Outwardly it seemed a city of gold, yet hundreds were half-perishing for want of food, with no place of shelter beneath which to lay their heads. Many families of freshly-arrived emigrants—wife, children, and all—slept out in the open air; infants were born upon the wharves with no helping hand near to support the wretched mother in her misery. How greatly the last few weeks had enlarged Melbourne. Cities of tents encompassed it on all sides; though, as I said before, the trifling comfort of a canvas roof above them was denied to the poorest of the poor, unless a weekly tax were paid."

Mrs. Clacy's rough notes on the natural history of Australia are well enough after their kind:—

"The principal trees in Australia are the gum, stringy bark, manna tree, wild cherry (so called), iron bark, shea oak, peppermint, acacia, and the mimosa, which last, however, should more properly be called a shrub. These and others, like the

Indian maleleucas, are remarkable for the Cajeput oil contained in their leaves, and in the gums which exude from their stems, and in this point of view alone, considering their boundless number, their value can hardly be over estimated. The gum of some of the acacias will bear comparison with gum-arabic. Their bark and timber are likewise useful, and when the gold fever has subsided, will become valuable as exports.

"Wild flowers there are in abundance, and some exquisite specimens of ferns. The geranium, fuschia, rhododendrum, and almost all varieties of the *Cacti*, have been taken to the colonies, and flourish well in the open air all the year round, growing much more luxuriantly than in England.

"The vineyards must some day form a considerable source of employment and profit to the colonists. The wine made in Australia is very good. The vines are cultivated in the same manner as in France. In the neighbourhood of Sydney, oranges and peaches are grown out in the open air. Apples and other fruits flourish well in Van Diemen's Land. All these fruits are not indigenous to Australia. The only articles of food natural there, are the kangaroos, emus, opossums, and other denizens of the forest, a few snakes, some roots, and a worm, about the length and thickness of a finger, which is abundant in all parts of the colony, and is taken out of the cavities, or from under the bark, of the trees. It is a great favourite with the blacks, as it can be procured when no other food is attainable.

"I have before made mention of the bush and scrub; there is a great dissimilarity between the two. The former resembles a forest, with none or very little underwood. The scrub, on the contrary, is always underwood, of from six to twenty feet high, and only here and there a few trees are seen. To be lost in either bush or scrub is a common thing. If on horseback the best way is to give the rein to your four-footed companion, and instinct will most probably enable him to extricate you. If on foot, ascend, if possible, a rise of ground, and notice any *fall* in the country; here, most likely, is a creek, and once beside that, you are pretty sure of coming to a station. If this fails, you must just bush it for the night, and resume your search next morning, trusting to an occasional 'coo-ey' to help you out of your difficulty.

"The scenery of Australia partakes of all characters. Sometimes miles of swamp reminds one of the Lincolnshire fens; at other times it assumes quite a park-like appearance, though the effect is greatly injured by the want of freshness about the foliage, which always looks of a dirty, dingy green. The native trees in Australia never shed their leaves, never have that exquisite young tint which makes an English spring in the country so delicious. Their faded look always reminded me of those unfortunate trees imprisoned for so many months beneath the Crystal Palace.

"The mountains in Australia are high and bold in outline, and the snow-capped Alps on the boundaries of New South Wales are not unlike their European namesakes, the highest tops are from six to seven thousand feet above the level of the sea. The country round Ballarat is more in the North American style, and when the creek is full, it is a fine sight, greatly resembling, I have heard, one of the smaller rivers in Canada; in fact, the scenery round Ballarat is said to approach more to Upper Canada than any in the colony. The rocks, although not high, are in places very bold and romantic, and in the wet season there are several water-falls in the neighbourhood.

"Eels are very plentiful in Victoria, and are peculiar to this district, being seldom, if ever, found in any other part of the known continent. Old writers on Australia have stated that eels are unknown in this part of the world, which, since this colony has been settled in, has been found to be erroneous, as the Barwin, the Yarra Yarra, and their tributaries, abound with them, some weighing five or six pounds. A few days after our return from the diggings, we breakfasted off a dish of stewed eels, caught by a friend; the smallest

weighed about a pound and a-half, the largest about three pounds. They were caught three miles from Melbourne, in the Salt Water Creek.

"A small kind of fish like the lamprey, another similar to the gudgeon, and also one (of rather a larger kind—the size of the roach) called here 'white herrings,' but not at all resembling that fish, are found. Pike are also very numerous. Crabs and lobsters are not known here, but in the salt creeks near the sea we have craw-fish.

"Of course, parrots, cockatoos, and 'sich-like,' abound in the bush, to the horror of the small gardeners and cultivators, as what they do not eat they ruin by destroying the young shoots.

"Kangaroos are extremely numerous in the scrub. They are the size of a large greyhound, and of a mouse colour. The natives call them 'kanguru.' The tail is of great strength. There are several varieties of them. The largest is the Great Kangaroo, of a greyish-brown colour, generally four or five feet high, and the tail three. Some kangaroos are nearly white, others resemble the hare in colour. Pugs, or young kangaroos, are plentiful about the marshy grounds; so are also the opossum and kangaroo rat. The latter is not a rat, properly speaking, but approaches the squirrel tribe. It is a lilliputian kangaroo, the size of our native wood-squirrel, and larger, only grey or reddish-grey. It can leap six or eight feet easily, and is excellent eating. The native dog is of all colours; it has the head and brush of a fox, with the body and legs of a dog. It is a cowardly animal, and will run away from you like mad. It is a great enemy of the kangaroo rat, and a torment to the squatter, for a native dog has a great *pénchant* for mutton, and will kill thirty or forty sheep in the course of an hour.

"A species of mocking-bird which inhabits the bush is a ludicrous creature. It imitates everything, and makes many a camping party imagine there is a man near them, when they hear its whistle or hearty laugh. This bird is nicknamed the 'Jackass,' and its loud 'ha! ha! ha!' is heard every morning at dawn echoing through the woods and serving the purpose of a 'boots' by calling the sleepy traveller in good time to get his breakfast and pursue his journey. The bats here are very large.

"Insects, fleas, &c., are as plentiful as it is possible to be, and the ants, of which there are several kinds, are a perfect nuisance. The largest are called by the old colonists, 'bull-dogs,' and formidable creatures they are—luckily not very common, about an inch and a half long, black, or rusty-black, with a red tail. They bite like a little crab. Ants of an inch long are quite common. They do not—like the English ones—run scared away at the sight of a human being—not a bit of it; Australian ants have more *pluck*, and will turn and face you. Nay, more, should you retreat, they will run after you with all the impudence imaginable. Often when my organ of destructiveness has tempted me slightly to disturb with the end of my parasol one of the many ant-hills on the way from Melbourne to Richmond, I have been obliged, as soon as they discovered the perpetrator of the attack, to take to my heels and run away as if for my life.

"Centipedes and triantelopes (colonial, for tarantula) are very common, and though not exactly fatal, are very dangerous if not attended to. The deaf adder is the most formidable 'varmint' in Australia. There are two varieties; it is generally about two feet long. The bite is fatal. The deaf adder never moves unless it is touched, hence its name. I do not think it has the power of twisting or twisting like the ordinary snake or adder, and it is very slow in its movements. There are several species of snakes, some of them are extremely venomous and grow to a large size, as long as ten feet. The black snake is the most venomous of any; its bite is fatal within a few hours."

The emigration of artisans and working men is strenuously advocated, and great good is stated to have arisen from the labours of Mrs. Chisholm:—

"Much is done now-a-days to assist emigration, but far greater exertions are needed before either the demand for labour in the colonies or the over-supply of it in England can be exhausted. Pass down the best streets of Melbourne: you see one or two good shops or houses, and on either side an empty spot or a mass of rubbish. The ground has been bought, the plans for the proposed building are all ready. Then why not commence?—there are no workmen. Bricks are wanted, and 15*l*. a thousand is offered; carpenters are advertised for at 8*l*. a week; yet the building makes no progress—there are no workmen. Go down towards the Yarra, and an unfinished church will attract attention. Are funds wanting for its completion? No. Thousands were subscribed in one day, and would be again were it necessary; but that building, like every other, is stopped for lack of workmen. In vain the bishop himself published an appeal to the various labourers required, offering the very highest wages; others offered higher wages still, and the church (up to the time I left Victoria) remained unfinished. And yet, whilst labour is so scarce, so needed in the colonies, there are thousands in our own country able and willing to work, whose lives here are one of prolonged privation, whose eyes are never gladdened by the sight of nature, who inhale no purer atmosphere than the tainted air of the dark courts and dismal cellars in which they herd. Send them to the colonies—food and pure air would at least be theirs, and much misery would be turned into positive happiness.

"I heard of a lady who every year sent out a whole family from the poor but hard-working classes to the colonies (it was through one of the objects of her thoughtful benevolence that this annual act became known to me), and what happiness must it bring when she reflects on the heart-felt blessings that are showered upon her from the far-off land of Australia. Surely, among the rich and the influential, there are many who, out of the abundance of their wealth, could 'go and do likewise.'"

Immediately that the authoress entered into the bond of matrimony she left the diggings for England, connubial felicity, notwithstanding the paucity of ladies, not appearing sufficiently inviting to remain:—

"To wander through Melbourne and its environs, no one would imagine that females were as one to four of the male population; for bonnets and parasols everywhere outnumber the wide-awakes. This is occasioned by the absence of so many of the 'lords of creation' in pursuit of what they value—many of them, at least—more than all the women in the world—nuggets. The wives thus left in town to deplore their husbands' infatuation are termed 'grass-widows'—a mining expression."

The brother remained to dig, and sell tiny glasses of ginger-beer and lemonade. "Some days," he writes home to his sister, in a letter dated only in April last, "we have taken ten pounds at this fun;" "we have had steady good luck in the digging line," he continues, but concludes, "I hope to see the last of it in six weeks' time. Hurrah for Old England! No place like it."

The Poetical Remains of Peter John Allan, Esq., late of Fredericton, New Brunswick.
Edited by the Rev. Henry Christmas, M.A., F.R.S. Smith, Elder, and Co.

In 1848, at the early age of twenty-three years, Peter John Allan was cut off by a brief illness. He was the son of Dr. Colin Allan, an army surgeon, who had held the appointment of principal medical officer in Halifax, Nova Scotia, and on retiring from the service settled in Fredericton, New Brunswick. Peter was intended for the law, but love of literary pursuits, and ambition of literary fame, led him to neglect his professional studies.

In the local journals he found some scope for his talents, and he was about to publish by subscription a volume of poems when seized with his fatal illness. In a biographical sketch by his brother, Mr. J. McGrigor Allan, of Aberdeen, some account is given of his personal and mental characteristics. He seems to have been a man of generous spirit and warm feelings, conspicuous for physical strength and for mental energy, whose loss was deeply felt and much lamented in the colony where his lot was cast. In the poetical remains now edited, at the request of his relatives, by Mr. Christmas, we have proofs of intellectual power and fervid imagination, and we may safely say, that had Mr. Allan lived, he might have occupied a high place in the literary records of his country. In his ballad poetry there is a vigour and freshness which few writers have reached, and in other pieces there is much tenderness of feeling and beauty of description. The *Battle of Cressy* is a pretty close paraphrase of Froissart's stirring narrative. We give the concluding lines:—

"And still amid the battle's press flam'd high one gory brand,
The talisman of victory in the princely Edward's hand;
In wild dismay the foemen met that stripling's eager eye,
And all who dar'd oppose him, oppos'd him but to die;
While through their ranks he fiercely rode, and heap'd his path with slain—
Helmet and hauberk, sword and shield, to stay his course were vain.

And now the French throughout the field, are scatter'd wide,
or slain;
Around their king (frail body guard) scarce sixty men remain.
Then quoth Sir John of Hainault, a valiant knight and true,
'My Liege, though Heav'n this day declare 'gainst France and you,
Another time shall o'er the Rose the Lilies flourish high,
But now, my Liege, the field his lost, and certes you must fly.'

"So, wheeling his swift charger, the king has left the ground,
Five barons only with him; next day the rest were found—
Eleven valiant princes, twelve hundred knights lay slain,
With thirty thousand men-at-arms upon that bloody plain.
And for that glorious victory the English all that night
Gave thanks unto the Lord of hosts, who shielded them in flight.

"O ever-glorious Cressy! In England's merry isle
That name will ever wake the heart's most bright triumphant smile;
And never shall the sons of those who bled on that great day,
Refuse to shed their dearest blood where England points the way;
And though the bow be broken now, and the spear be seen no more,
Yet the same blood is in our veins that ran in theirs of yore."

The ballad of *The Christian and the Moor*, taken from Washington Irving's '*Conquest of Granada*,' is equal to some of the best of Lockhart's Spanish translations. It is too long to quote entire, but a few of the verses will recall the story:—

"Now, sudden from Granada's gates, there roll'd a ribald crowd,
Around a single horseman huge, with declamations loud;
And as the charger nearer came, its rider well they knew—
'Twas Tarfe, as brave a Moorish knight as falcion ever drew.
'The Giant heathen was encased in mail from head to heel
Of sable hue; his scimitar, of true Damascus steel,
Was in a silken baldric hung, his spear was in the rest,
And on before the Spanish lines his steed he dauntless press'd.

"A sudden execration flies at once along the van,
A cry of horror and of rage, sent forth from man to man—
For, fastened to his courser's tail, a crumpled scroll was seen,
Inscribed with holy Mary's name—heaven's chaste and honoured queen.

"Each Christian warrior's heart is full of deep and deadly ire;
The hand that grasps the dagger's hilt proclaims the soul's desire
To grapple with the impious wretch, who dares all heaven defy—
Revenge that bitter blasphemy, or in the effort die.

"The youthful Garcilaso has sought the sovereign's tent,
And for a boon, before the throne, an humble suppliant bent—
'Grant, Sir,' he said, 'thy royal leave, this Tarfe my blade shall feel;
Once, ere he die, before the cross the boastful Moor shall kneel.'

"King Ferdinand this answer made, 'Go forth, my gallant knight,
And may the holy Mother still protect thee in the fight;
Our fervent prayer shall be put up to Heaven's throne for thee,
Go forth, and may the Lord of hosts vouchsafe thy shield to be.'"

The defeat and death of Tarfe are described with a spirit worthy of the subject, and of the graphic narrative of the historian by which the lines were suggested. From the minor miscellaneous poems we select two pieces, a dirge and a sonnet, both remarkable for their bearing upon the early fate of the writer:—

"A DIRGE.

"Life is day, and death is night,
Bringing with it deep,
Never-ending sleep,
And dreams that soothe the soul, or else affright.

"Life is Eden; but the tree
Of true knowledge blooms
'Mid the desert's tombs,
—The cypress soon to wave o'er you and me.

"Our first parents, in the groves
Of bliss Paradise,
Life did sacrifice,
Exchanging hatreds for their former loves.

"To the desert driven forth,
There they toiled and wept,
Till in piece they slept
Beneath the cypress, pillowed on the earth.

"We, like them, are driven forth;
We must toil and weep,
Till in quiet sleep,
Beneath the cypress shade we sink to earth."

After this mournful melody, it is pleasant to hear the glad and pious strain of this sonnet:—

"OMNISCIENT Father, by whose love divine
We breathe the buoyant air of living hope,
That Faith which reads its glorious horoscope
In purer skies, whose stars for ever shine,
Oh, let my spirit kindle at the shrine
Of earth, thine altar; and amidst her choir,
Winds, waves, and all that is, let me aspire
To pour to thee, my God, the votive line.
Henceforth celestial rapture may I feel,
Akin to his who sang creation's doom;
Obedient still to conscience's appeal,
In life's sweet twilight shun the bigot's gloom,
And, heeding all that Nature's lips reveal,
Move with a Christian's triumph to the tomb."

The *Land of Dreams* is one of the best pieces in the volume, full of warm fancy, and the diction is forcible and elegant:—

"Where harp-like o'er'y wave
The softest music gave;
And all the winds, with voices low and sweet,
Did hymns of ecstasy repeat.

"Here, as I stood amazed,
And o'er the billows gazed,
A magic skiff drew near;
And there was none to steer,
Or urge it forward with the skiff's oar;
All silently it came,
Swift as the lightning flame,
And touched the lonely shore.

"I sprang into the bark,
At once the skies grew dark;
The tempest left his lair,
And bared his lightning brand,
And with one stroke of his gigantic hand
Smote ocean into fury, wild and fell,
As though its raging waves were blent with those of hell.

"I stretch me in that narrow bark to die,
When on my car there flows
A sweet and gentle sigh;
Sweet as the incense of the earliest rose,
Which Zephyr on her wing
Conveys a welcome gift unto her mother Spring.
That sigh awoke me from my trance of fear—
I look'd, and lo! the skies again were clear;
And the bright dawning light of day
Fell on a beautiful isle that lay
A solitary Eden of the sea,
A realized dream of poetry."

Pygmalion, a dramatic poem, has some fine passages, and the speeches give opportunity for the author uttering many of his own thoughts and sentiments; but the general effect of the poem is not striking, and it has the additional disadvantage of having been left in an unfinished state.

Mental Portraits; or, Studies of Character.

By Henry F. Tuckerman, Author of 'Artist Life,' &c. Bentley.

THIS volume contains a series of literary portraits of what Mr. Tuckerman's countryman, Emerson, would call representative men. Southey, the man of letters, Savage, the literary adventurer, D'Azeglio, the literary statesman, Lord Jeffrey, the reviewer, Sir David Wilkie, the painter of character, Audubon, the ornithologist, Washington Irving, the humorist, Jacques Lafitte, the financier, and eight or ten other equally marked characters, are delineated. In these biographical essays Mr. Tuckerman displays much acuteness of observation and soundness of judgment. In so great a range of subjects there is room for diversity of opinion, and there is inequality of merit in the several sketches, but on the whole the book may be commended for the faithfulness and spirit of the mental portraits. Some detached extracts will enable our readers to see the nature of Mr. Tuckerman's essays, and may induce many to study a work which they will find both profitable and entertaining. The characteristics of John Constable as a landscape painter are thus truthfully described:—

"A mill with its usual natural accessories continued a favourite subject with the painter to the last; and he sorely grieved when a fire destroyed the first specimen that his pencil immortalized. A harvest field, a village church, a ford, a pier, a heath, a wain—scenes exhibited to his eye in boyhood, and to the daily vision of farmers, sportsmen, and country-gentlemen—were those to which his sympathies habitually clung. No compliment seems ever to have delighted him more than the remark of a stranger, in the Suffolk coach, 'This is Constable's county.' His custom was to pass weeks in the fields, and sketch clouds, trees, uplands—whatever object or scene could be rendered picturesque on canvas; to gather herbs, mosses, coloured earth, feathers, and lichens, and imitate their hues exactly. So intent was he at times in sketching, that field mice would creep unalarmed into his pockets. But perhaps the natural beauties that most strongly attracted him were evanescent;—the sweep of a cloud, the gathering of a tempest, the effect of wind on cornfields, woods and streams, and, above all, the play of light and shade. So truly were these depicted, that Fuseli declared he often was disposed to call for his coat and umbrella before one of Constable's landscapes representing a transition state of the elements.

"If there be a single genuine poetic instinct in the English mind, it is that which allies them to country-life. The poets of this nation have never been excelled either in rural description or in conveying the sentiment to which such tastes gave birth. What we recognise in Constable is the artistic development of this national trait. We perceive at a glance that he was 'native here and to the manner born.' There is an utter absence of exaggeration—at least in the still-life of his pictures—while no one can mistake the latitude of his atmospheres. They are not American, nor European, but thoroughly English. A great source of his aptitude was a remarkable local attachment. He not only saw distinctly the minute features of a limited scene or a characteristic group of objects, but he loved them. He had the fondness for certain rural spots which Lamb confessed for particular metropolitan haunts; and, therefore, it was not necessary for him, in order to paint with feeling, to combine scattered beauties, as is the case with less individual limners, nor to borrow or invent accessories to set off his chosen subject—but only to elicit, by patient attention, such favourable moments and incidents as were best fitted to exhibit it to advantage.

"In this way, few painters have done more to suggest the infinite natural resources of their art. Its poetry to him was twofold—consisting of the

associations and of the intrinsic beauty of the scene.

There is often evident in genius a kind of sublime common sense—an intuitive intelligence which careless observers mistake sometimes for obstinacy or waywardness. Constable displayed it in fidelity to his sphere, notwithstanding many temptations to wander from it. He felt that portrait and historical painting were not akin either to his taste or highest ability: and that the ambitious and elaborate in landscape would give no scope to his talent; in his view Art was not less a thing of feeling than of knowledge; and it was a certain indescribable sentiment in the skies of Claude and the composition of Ruysdael that endeared them to him more than mere fidelity to detail. Accordingly he laboured with zest only upon subjects voluntarily undertaken, and to which he felt drawn by a spontaneous attraction; and over these he rarely failed to throw the grace of a fresh and vivid conception. The word 'handling' was his aversion, because he saw no evidence of it in nature, and looked upon her loving delineator as working not in a mechanical but in a sympathetic relation. 'There is room enough,' he says, 'for a natural painter. The great vice of the present day is *bravura*—an attempt to do something beyond the truth.' Harvest-men were to him more charming than peers; and the rustle of foliage sweeter than the hum of conversations."

Of Theodore Körner, the youthful hero, there is a fine sketch, the union of strength of moral purpose, and sensibility of character, being well brought out in the account of his brief but enterprising and glorious career:—

"Körner, fortunately, left us a reliable index of his nature in his poems: there we recognise both his heroism and his love in their elemental and spontaneous action; and two of them—one written on parting with his chosen bride, and the other embodying the religious sentiment that hallowed his patriotism, give us, as it were, a key to the apparent antagonism but real and divine consistency of his sentiments:—

"Farewell, farewell!—with silent grief of heart
I breathe adieu to follow duty now;
And if a silent tear unbidden start,
It will not, love, disgrace a soldier's brow.
Where'er I roam, should joy my path illumine,
Or death entwine the garland of the tomb,
Thy lovely form shall float my path above,
And guide my soul to rapture and to love!

"O hail and bless, sweet spirit of my life,
The ardent zeal that sets my soul on fire;
That bids me take a part in yonder strife,
And for the sword, awhile, forsake the lyre.
For, see, thy minstrel's dreams were not all vain,
Which he so oft hath bellow'd in his strain;
O see the patriot-strife at length awake!
There let me fly and all its toils partake.

"The victor's joyous wreath shall bloom more bright
That's pluck'd amid the joys of love and song;
And my young spirit hails with pure delight
The hope fulfilled which it hath cherished long.
Let me but struggle for my country's good,
E'en though I shed for her my warm life-blood,
And now one kiss—e'en though the last it prove;
For there can be no death for our true love!

"PRAYER DURING BATTLE.

"Father, I invoke thee!
I am involved in clouds of vapour from the warring mouths
of fire,

The lightnings of those thunderbolts flash around me.
Ruler of battles, I invoke thee!
Father, lead me on.

"Father, lead me on!
Conduct me to victory; conduct me to death!
Lord, I recognise thy will!

Lord, conduct me as thou wilt!
God! I acknowledge thee!

"God! I acknowledge thee!
As in the autumnal whisper of the leaves,
So in the storm of the battle.

Thee, primeval fountain of grace, I recognise!
Father, oh, bless me!

"Father, oh, bless me!
Into thy hands I commend my life!
Thou canst take it away, thou didst give it!
In living and in dying bless me!
Father, I worship thee!

"Father, I worship thee!
It is not a combat for the goods of this world;
The most sacred of things we defend with the sword,
Wherefore, failing or conquering, I worship thee!
God, to thee I resign myself!

"God, to thee I resign myself!
If the thunders of death salute me,
If the blood flow from my opened veins,
To thee, my God, I resign myself.
Thee, Father, I invoke!"

The life of Savage is effectively told, but of him we seem to care to know little more after Dr. Johnson's generous memoir. Mr. Tuckerman has some just remarks on the distinction between professional men of letters and irregular literary adventurers, and even of the latter Savage is admitted to have been not a fair specimen:—

"His whole experience was anomalous. Of noble origin, yet the frequent associate of felons and paupers, with a mother for his most bitter enemy, and the slayer of one who never offended him; long accustomed to luxury, yet finding his best comfort in a gaol; conscious of superior abilities, yet habituated to degrading expedients; his written life touching the hearts of thousands, while his actual condition annoyed more often than it interested; the guest of a wealthy lord, the confidant of men of genius, the intimate of Wilkes and Steele, and the cynosure of many select circles in London and Bristol, he sometimes famished for want of nourishment, and 'slept on bulks in summer and in glass-houses in the winter.' From the king he received a pardon, after being condemned to the gallows, and from a fashionable actress a pension; the queen's volunteer-laureate, he died in a prison-cell, and was buried at the expense of the gaoler. The records of human vicissitude have few more painful episodes; the plots of few tragedies boast more pathetic material; and the legacies of genius, to those who explore them to analyse character and trace the influence of experience upon mental development, rarely offer the adventurous and melancholy interest that is associated with the name of Richard Savage. He is the type of reckless talent, the ideal of a literary vagabond, the synonym for an unfortunate wit. In his history the adventures of hack-writers reach their acme; and his consciousness embraced the vital elements of dramatic experience—the internal light of fancy and reflection, and the external shade of appalling fact."

In the Marquis d'Azeglio we have an excellent type of the literary statesman. Of his literary, artistic, and political career an interesting narrative is given, and his public services, as recounted by Mr. Tuckerman, exhibit M. d'Azeglio, as one of the most enlightened and influential statesmen of the age. His name is associated with the recent efforts to establish a constitutional government in Sardinia, the sole country of Southern Europe with which English or American freemen can feel any political sympathy:—

"A few years since, Rome seemed the destined nucleus for such a change, and subsequently Tuscany; but the bigotry of ecclesiastical power in the one, and the grasp of Austrian power in the other, soon led to a fatal reaction. The course of events and the facts of to-day now indisputably designate Sardinia as the region whence the light is to emanate. Favoured, as we have seen, by the character of her people, her local position, and the traits of her past history, the very disaster that checked her army has tended to concentrate and develop the spirit of the age and the elements of constitutional liberty within her borders. The loss of the battle of Novara and the abdication of Charles Albert, though apparently great misfortunes, have resulted in signal benefits. After securing peace from their adversaries chiefly by a pecuniary sacrifice, the king and citizens of Piedmont turned their energies towards internal reform with a wisdom and good faith which are rapidly yielding legitimate fruit.

"Public schools were instituted, the press made free, the Waldenses allowed to quit their valleys, build churches, and elect representatives, the privileges of the clergy abolished, and the two bishops who ventured to oppose the authority of her state tried, condemned, and banished, the Pope's inter-

ference repudiated, the right of suffrage instituted, railroads from Turin to Genoa, and from Alessandria to Lago Maggiore constructed, the electric telegraph introduced, liberal commercial treaties formed, docks built, and cheap postal laws enacted. In a word, the great evils that have so long weighed down the people of the Italian peninsula—unlimited monarchical power, aristocratic and clerical immunities derived from the Middle Ages, the censorship of the press, the espionage of the police, and intolerance of all but the Catholic religion—no longer exist in Sardinia. Regarding the constitution of Charles Albert as a sacred legacy, his son and people resolved to uphold and carry out its principles; and they have done so, with scarcely any violence or civil discord. Accordingly, an example is now before the Italians, and within their observation and sympathy, of a free, progressive, and enlightened government; and this one fact is pregnant with hope for the entire nation. Only fanatics and shallow adventurers behold the signs of promise without grateful emotion. The wise and true friends of Italy, at home and abroad, welcome the daily proofs of a new era for that unhappy land afforded by the prosperity and freedom now enjoyed in Piedmont.

"It would be manifestly unjust to ascribe all these propitious changes to the personal influence of D'Azeglio; but he deserves the credit of projecting and successfully advocating many of the most effective ameliorations, and of being the consistent and recognised expositor of the liberal policy of the state. The accession of Pius IX. was greeted by him with all the delight the hopeful dawn of his career naturally inspired among the Italian patriots. He published a letter full of applause and encouragement, and had a long and satisfactory interview with the new Pope; and when the bitter disappointment ensued, he carried out, in his official capacity, the sentiments he professed, and to which Pius IX. was shamelessly recreant. Like Henry Martyn in England, he proposed the emancipation of the Jews in Piedmont, and his philanthropy is manifested in the establishment of public baths and fires for the poor. He took a bold and decided stand against the Pope, and originated the treaty with England. In his address to the Sardinian parliament, on the 12th of February, 1852, he expresses the noblest sentiments and principles, in language of simple and earnest vigour;—repudiating what are called reasons of state, maintaining that the same morality is applicable to governments and individuals, that integrity has taken the place of astuteness, that good sense and good faith are all that the true statesman requires to guide him, and that the press and facility of intercourse which enable Turin, Moscow, and Edinburgh to feel simultaneously the force of public opinion, have emancipated rulers from the narrow resource of subtlety, and induced among all enlightened governments reliance on the absolute power of truth and fidelity. He attributes, in this masterly discourse, the peaceful achievement of so much permanent good in the state, to the virtue of the people, the prudence of the legislature, and the loyalty of the king.

"How long Sardinia will be permitted to carry on within her own limits the progressive system that now so happily distinguishes her from the other continental governments, is extremely doubtful. The asylum she gives to political refugees, the unpleasant truths her free press announces, and the operation of her free-trade principles, occasion the greatest annoyance to Austria, and excite the sympathetic desires of less favoured states. It is scarcely to be hoped that interference of a more active kind than has yet taken place will be attempted. Meantime, however, it is but just to recognise the noble example she has set of enlightened self-government, and to award the highest praise to the generous and judicious statesman at the head of her policy. It will prove a remarkable coincidence if the enterprise recently broached in New York, of a line of steamers between that city and Genoa, is realized; thus uniting by frequent intercourse the commercial emporium of the New World with the birthplace of her discoverer, and

opening a direct and permanent communication between the greatest republic of the earth and the one state of Italy which has proved herself sufficiently intelligent, moral, and heroic, to reform peacefully an oppressive heritage of political and social evils."

The sketch of the life and character of Francis Jeffrey is that which we like least in the series. Mr. Tuckerman points out truly enough some points of weakness and of error in the great reviewer, but he fails in the attempt to describe the chief sources of that power which he so long held with an absolutism which made him, in Mr. Tuckerman's phrase, "the Napoleon of the world of letters." The reasons of his success are thus stated:—

"He was the pioneer reviewer; the first who discovered the entire significance of the cabalistic 'we.' With an acute though not comprehensive power of reflection he united remarkable tact; and by virtue of these two qualities, naturally succeeded in pleasing that large class of readers who are neither wholly superficial nor profound, but a little of both. He had a metaphysical turn without rising to the title of a moral philosopher; and could speculate upon abstract questions with an ease and agreeableness that rendered them entertaining. Accordingly he made abstruse subjects familiar, and delighted many who had never been conscious of great insight, with the idea that they could appreciate the mysteries of knowledge. There is more, however, that is plausible and attractive than original or suggestive in the metaphysical dissertations of Jeffrey. The talent of the writer, rather than the novelty or consistency of his theories, is to be admired. The article, for instance, on Alison's Taste, is a charming specimen of this kind of writing; but it wants definite and satisfactory impressions. It gratifies a taste in composition rather than a passion for truth, which should guide and inspire such investigations."

This is so far true, but when Mr. Tuckerman goes on to say that Jeffrey's reputation was only temporary, and that even in his own day it was overrated, and when he pronounces that there are passages in Mackintosh and Hazlitt, Lamb and Hunt, "to which the comments of Jeffrey are as a pyrotechnic glare to the beams of the sun," it is evident that the character of the great reviewer is neither understood nor appreciated. As to the fluency, smartness, and brilliancy of Jeffrey's style, there may be room for diversity of opinion, but beneath the superficial attractions which gave the Edinburgh reviewer his popularity with ordinary readers, there was a sagacity of judgment rarely at fault, and a classic elegance of taste which few since Addison's days have surpassed. So far from Jeffrey's influence being transient and inconsiderable, his collected contributions to the 'Edinburgh Review' are rich treasures of intellectual and critical study, and English literature will for ever be indebted to him for the honest stand that he made against the mysticism and namby-pambyism which in the early part of this century threatened to overlay the sterling sense and refined taste of our old standard classics.

Among the most pleasing of Mr. Tuckerman's portraits are those of his two countrymen, Audubon and Washington Irving. The peculiarities of the naturalist's genius and talents are happily described:—

"The popular basis of Audubon's renown, as well as the individuality of his taste as a naturalist, rests upon artistic merit. I have alluded to the instinctive desire he so early manifested not only to observe, but to possess the beautiful denizens of the forest and the meadow; and he candidly acknowledges that he was induced to take their portraits to console himself for not possessing the

originals. Rude as were his first attempts to delineate birds, few portrait-painters work in a more disinterested spirit: the motive was neither gain, nor hope of distinction, nor even scientific enthusiasm; for when Wilson called at his place of business, these primitive sketches were produced as the results of leisure, and the work of an unskilled amateur. It is evident, therefore, that a genuine love of the occupation, and a desire to have authentic memorials of these objects of his enthusiastic admiration, was the original cause of his labours with crayon and pigments; circumstances, an ardent temperament, and an earnest will gradually developed this spontaneous tendency into a masterly artistic faculty; he sketched, painted, and destroyed—copied, retouched, and improved, until he succeeded in representing perfectly the forms, colours, attitudes, and expression of the feathered tribe. The life-size of these delineations, their wonderful accuracy, the beauty of their hues, and the animation of their aspect, instantly secured for the backwoodsman-artist universal praise; but a minute inspection revealed yet higher claims: each plate, in fact, is an epitome of the natural history of the species depicted,—male and female, young and adult, are grouped together, their plumage at different seasons, the vegetation they prefer, the soil, the food, sometimes the habits, and often the prey of each bird are thus indicated; and we take in at a glance not only the figure, but the peculiarities of the genus. This completeness of illustration, the result of vast study, united as it is with grace and brilliancy of execution, led the great naturalist of France to declare that America had achieved a work unequalled in Europe. No lover of nature, whether poet or *savant*, can contemplate these exquisite and vivid pictures in a foreign country, without delight and gratitude; for, without any exertion on his part, they introduced him to an intimate acquaintance with the varied and numerous birds which haunt the woods, sky, and waters between Labrador and Florida, in hue, outline, and action as vivid and true as those of nature; and their intrinsic value as memorials is enhanced by the consideration that a rapid disappearance of whole species of birds has been observed to attend the progress of civilization on this continent."

The sketch of Washington Irving will equally delight English and American readers, for he is alike popular in both countries:—

"The place which our author holds in national affection can never be superseded. His name is indissolubly associated with the dawn of our recognised literary culture. We have always regarded his popularity in England as one of the most charming traits of his reputation, and that, too, for the very reasons which narrow critics once assigned as derogatory to his national spirit. His treatment of English subjects; the felicitous manner in which he revealed the life of our ancestral land to us her prosperous offspring, mingled as it was with vivid pictures of our own scenery, touched a chord in the heart which responds to all that is generous in sympathy and noble in association. If we regard Irving with national pride and affection, it is partly on account of his cosmopolitan tone of mind—a quality, among others, in which he greatly resembles Goldsmith. It is, indeed, worthy of a true American writer, that, with his own country and a particular region thereof as a nucleus of his sentiment, he can see and feel the characteristic and the beautiful, not only in Old England but in romantic Spain; that the phlegmatic Dutchman and the mercurial southern European find an equal place in his comprehensive glance. To range from the local wit of Salmagundi to the grand and serious historical enterprise which achieved a classic 'Life of Columbus,' and from the simple grief embalmed in the 'Widow's Son,' to the observant humour of the 'Stout Gentleman,' bespeaks not only an artist of exquisite and versatile skill, but a man of the most liberal heart and catholic taste.

"The true bias of Irving's genius is artistic. The lights and shadows of English life, the legend-

any romance of Spain, the novelties of a tour on the Prairies of the west, and of adventures in the Rocky Mountains, the poetic beauty of the Alhambra, the memories of Abbotsford and Newstead Abbey, the quaint and comfortable philosophy of the Dutch colonists, and the scenery of the Hudson, are themes upon which he expatiates with the grace and zest of a master. His affinity of style with the classic British essayists served not only as an invaluable precedent in view of the crude mode of expression prevalent half a century ago among us, but also proved a bond in letters between America and England, by recalling the identity of language and domestic life at a time when great asperity of feeling divided the two countries."

In the collected form in which Mr. Tucker-man's literary reviews and sketches of character now appear, they will be acceptable to many readers. We have met with few American books with the sentiments and style of which we are more thoroughly pleased.

The Turks in Europe; a Sketch of Manners and Politics in the Ottoman Empire. By Bayle St. John, Author of 'Village Life in Egypt,' &c. Chapman and Hall.

APART from fear and jealousy of Russian aggrandisement, it is difficult to account for the present feeling in behalf of the Ottoman Empire. It may partly arise from the generous tendency to take the side of the weak against the strong, and to resist injustice and aggression. But certainly there is nothing in the state of Turkey itself to call forth the sympathy of Christians and of Englishmen. All who know the country agree in their reports of Ottoman crime and misrule. Under the pressure of political events a few privileges have been exacted from the Government for the Christian races, among which the admission of their evidence in courts of law is the most practically important. But throughout the dominions of the Sultan, the Christian inhabitants are ground down in the most cruel bondage by the descendants of the barbarians who invaded Christendom four centuries ago, and whose tyranny is now perpetuated by the free nations of Western Europe. Whatever may be the issue of the present crisis in Eastern affairs, the internal condition of Turkey must ere long undergo a complete revolution. Mr. St. John gives in this work the results of his personal observation and knowledge of the social as well as political state of the Ottoman empire in Europe. Many of his statements will surprise those whose ideas of Turkish affairs are only gathered from the correspondence of the public journals, or the superficial narratives of passing travellers. Mr. St. John in the opening of his book announces in plain terms his general views, in a chapter which he entitles 'The Requiem of Turkey.'

"The horde of barbarians which of old threatened to overrun the whole of Europe and submerge its civilization—which founded an empire whose annals form some of the most brilliant pages of history—retain now scarcely a trace of their former character. Their enthusiasm has subsided into gross egotism. Their faith has become mere heavy bigotry. They have, in fact, reached a depth of moral and political degradation which those who believe in the reform will find it difficult to accept. Nor is their material condition better. The flesh is as ill provided as the spirit. The dominant race may almost be called an aristocracy in rags. Some exceptions 'stick fiery off' from the blackness of the rest; but as a rule there is no medium between successful rapine and semi-beggary.

"I am no friend to paradoxes; and certainly no disciple of conservatism. But I am forced to admit that the reform attempted in Turkey by Mahmud

and Abd-ul-Mejid hastened instead of retarding the downward progress of the empire. The Turks who until then had evaded by privilege the payment of taxes were at length called upon to contribute their quota towards the revenue; but without being taught to assist in developing the resources of the country. Their old habits of indiscriminate plunder and extortion were checked; but the want of a proper system of administration, or rather of the materials by which to carry it on, enabled them to turn upon the regular revenue of the country, which they arrest at every corner on its way to the treasury. Thus, directly or indirectly, the Christian population is still compelled to work not only for its own support but for that of a set of idle vagabonds, who, forsooth, because their ancestors were conquerors, must be protected, under the sanction of that fine phrase, 'the integrity of the Ottoman empire.'

"I know that it is repeated over and over again in the press and in parliament, at home and abroad, by those who are afraid to take the bull by the horns, that the condition of Turkey has improved, though only a little, that it is a little stronger, a little less corrupt, a little less disorganised, that it has a little more chance of existence; and statesmen are sometimes willing to take this microscopic information as an excuse for inaction. I maintain, however, that all these infinitesimal improvements exist only in the imagination of those who speak of them. On the contrary, every department, judicial and administrative, has increased in venality and corruption. There may be less violence, but there is more fraud. At Constantinople the state of things is bad enough. The evil grows in proportion to the distance from the centre. It would seem as if the Turks believed that the old prophecy is about to be accomplished, which gives the empire four hundred years of life. They are subjecting, therefore, the provinces from which they must be driven to hurried plunder—the old habit of a hostile corps about to decamp from an occupied city at news of the approach of a superior force. The Turks have failed, indeed, to assimilate even with the country and the climate, much less with the people and the manners, amidst which they have intruded. They have never colonized, but have been for four hundred years billeted upon the finest portion of Europe.

"It is high time, therefore, to chant the requiem of this decrepit race; and to push it into the grave with as much decency as possible."

Details are then given of the miserable system of government. The provinces are ruled by a set of petty tyrants, whose right of extortion and oppression is purchased at Constantinople:—

"I set out with an account of the manner in which the election of the princes of the protected provinces takes place. The legal formalities having been gone through, the prince elect arrives at Constantinople to receive his investiture. The first thing he meets with is a bill of charges. He is told at once that he must give so much to such a minister, and so much to another, according to the efforts each has made, and the intrigues each has set on foot to procure the nomination. Corruption in the East sets a high value upon its services. A written list is made out, with the name of the Sultan at the head. It is submitted first to the Council of Ministers, where every item is discussed with the urbanity of bandits dividing the spoils of a village, and then to his majesty himself. But this list does not represent the entire amount of expenses incurred. Some cunning individuals who are set down for a comparatively small sum secretly stipulate for a much greater. In fine the affair is a regular bargain, and a principedom is often sold in this way for the sum of 60,000*l.* sterling.

"This transaction takes place pretty publicly. It is almost an official act. Russia countenances it, and even recommends the princes thus to lavish in corruption the money which must of course be afterwards levied upon the purchased province. It is needless to insist on the disastrous result of such a system; but we should be doing injustice to the

sagacity of the Turkish ministers if we did not point out that they are always ready to mix in any intrigues which have for their object to overthrow a prince who remains too long at his post, and thus defrauds them of fresh presents. This is one of the principal reasons of the unstable character of the governments of these feudatory countries, and the uncertainty created, the discomfort, and the oppression, may perhaps reconcile powerful neighbours who have ulterior objects in view to being considered accomplices in so abominable a traffic.

"When the princes have thus paved their way with gold, they are admitted to the presence of the Sultan and girded with the sword of office. They then make a round of visits to the chief authorities of the capital—with hands still full of money—for largess is indispensable from the meanest groom up to the right-hand man of each official. Every corridor and doorway is closed, as it were by begging hands outstretched from either side, and which refuse to give way until they are filled. It is not, however, on this occasion only that such ante-chamber robbery takes place. Audiences are always paid for in the East; the foreign ministers bow to the immemorial custom, and Sir Stratford Canning never obtained an interview without a consideration.

"The same carelessness and want of honesty are exhibited in every other department. For example, the customs of each pashalik or district are in general farmed to private individuals. There is no auction, no competition of any kind. The ministers treat directly with their favourite Armenian, Jewish, Turkish, or Greek bankers; and a public agreement is made for a certain sum, whilst private stipulations are of course entered into, so that official interest may be rewarded. I might mention an instance in which a pasha has been induced to sell a certain revenue of 8,000,000 piastres for 500,000. In farming the other branches of the revenue, as for example, the tithe, which is paid in kind, similar recklessness is displayed; for even when the semblance of an auction is attempted, every one knows beforehand who is to be the successful bidder, and under whose patronage."

Of the literature and education of the European Turks this account is given:—

"The manners and character of the Muslims, and especially of the Turks, have been entirely formed on the Koran. No inquiring literature or philosophy has risen up in their minds to take the place of the enthusiasm that was to die away. There has never been among them anything like public instruction of an elevated character. The elementary schools, whether attached to mosques or fountains, or meeting under trees or hedges, are numerous, it is true; but nothing is taught in them beyond reading and writing. The children sit in circles, and snuffle out passages of the Koran in chorus, or scrawl out sentences on their wooden slates. The science of arithmetic is only learned by a few at a later period. There are no school books at all. The child of ten years old, like the old man of fifty, derives in Turkey all his ideas of religion, morals, politics, law, and geography, from the mystical paragraphs of the sacred volume. It is true there is a Turkish literature containing some good books; but these are now rarely read. The Turk has settled down into a mere animal state. The medressis, or colleges, are principally frequented by persons who do not intend to attempt occupying any public situation, and who wish to console and prepare themselves for the future by a life of meditation. There is taught there, however, a kind of body of practical philosophy founded on the Koran, together with the Arabic and Persian languages. No scientific instruction is even attempted. The knowledge of European literature and arts—even in those who have travelled in France and England—is so limited as scarcely to be worth alluding to. I have often had occasion to observe the impenetrability of all easterns, and especially the Turks, to our ideas, which may enter their ears, but never penetrate further, not finding any place ready to receive them."

The condition of the women of any country

is one of the surest marks of its civilization. In this the excellence of the Christian religion is conspicuous, as contrasted with the influence of all other systems. The chapter on 'Turkish Wives and Mothers' presents a sad picture of female degradation:—

"Many rich Turkish ladies carry on a trade, for which we have scarcely any name. They keep what may be called Nurseries of Wives and Mothers; and find both pleasure and profit in training their young *protégées* for the duties of married life. Their agents go about collecting the raw material of their manufacture, picking up orphans, foundlings, or the children of poor parents; for in the East there is no prejudice of birth, and the lady is distinguished from her servant only by education or wealth. The task of training is by no means difficult. Not much knowledge is expected of an Oriental matron; and in this case at least neither the idea of virtue nor the sentiment of modesty is inculcated. We have already hinted in what way the flock of young maidens is made to contribute to the development of the young masters of the house. The rest of their instruction is simple enough, differing indeed in no respect from that which has been described in the previous section. They are early ready to be sold as wives or mistresses.

"Beautiful girls are often bought by these professional trainers in high life for eight or ten pounds, and afterwards sold for four or five hundred. The profit constitutes the pin-money of the harim. A number of old women—bride-brokers—carry on the trade, to which not the slightest idea of shame is attached. They discuss the price of their merchandise para by para, and as openly as if they were selling a pair of slippers or a parcel of perfume. Sometimes they act as agents for some old gentleman, who finds his house lonely and his purse sufficiently full to enable him to indulge in the luxury of a companion; and sometimes they undertake the still more equivocal task of going about warming the imaginations of bachelors and others by luxurious descriptions of the caged beauties. They generally take money on either hand, and it must be admitted that many good matches are struck up by their care.

"There is no prejudice against partners obtained by these means. On the contrary, many Turks prefer damsels brought up in this way—perhaps because they are without the incumbrance of relations—especially when they come from the harim of a minister or other great functionary. The wife of Reschid Pasha, who by the way is no polygamist, has generally some forty young creatures to dispose of, and finds no difficulty in getting rid of them. The demand is always equal to the supply.

"Another source from which vacant harims are filled is the market of Georgian slaves; but it is by no means so popular. These unhappy creatures, who are embarked at Trebisond on board of the regular steamers, reach Constantinople in a very sad and pitiable state. We can imagine an European reader almost envying the captain under whose care is placed so poetical a cargo; but, alas! the truth is, that the Georgians are looked upon almost as suspiciously as a hundred cases of leeches for the Marseilles market. It is true they are separated as much as possible from the rest of the passengers, penned in like a flock of sheep, and hidden by dirty cloths; or, in bad weather, crammed below like negroes in the middle passage. In spite of these precautions the whole vessel suffers from their presence. Nearly every one of them has the itch; and, without exception, every one brings away a colony of native vermin. This is easily accounted for. The poor things resemble not a bevy of English maidens going out voluntarily to seek for husbands in the barracks of Madras or Calcutta. They are sold from poverty or avarice by their parents or friends, and are handed over nearly naked to the purchaser. To dress them would eat up all the profits. A ragged shift and piece of canvas wrapped round their shoulders—such is the costume in which they crowd

by day and huddle together at night, whispering or dreaming of the splendour which has been promised them, to dispel their sorrow or their sulkiness,—and perhaps giving a passing thought to the home which has cast them forth, like the pet-lamb when it has outgrown the fondness or the patience of its mistress. The merchant, with the uncalculating stupidity which characterises all dealers in human flesh, fattens these future sultanas during the voyage on water and millet-flour porridge. They arrive at their journey's end in such a state that few connoisseurs in incipient beauty would venture to pronounce an opinion.

"Sometimes, when the owner is in haste to realize, he drives his Georgian flock to market in the unseemly condition in which they come ashore; or at most throws around them a ferigeh—the mantle of the Turkish women. Chance for the most part presides over the sale. The purchaser keeps at a respectful distance from his acquisition—as a doctor might from a plague-patient; and drives her before him to what may be called a preparatory school for the harim. A number of old women, indeed, gain their living by polishing up this rough material, curing them, by remedies of which they have the secret, of their disease, combing their hair into shape, scrubbing them, and exterminating the reminiscences they have brought with them from their native hovels. Whilst performing these duties, they take occasion to instruct them a little likewise in Turkish etiquette, and in the means they must adopt to win the affections of their masters. The last rags of modesty are thus torn away; and the slave is ready to become the mother of a grand vizier! We must add, that frequently the girls are not brought to market until this preliminary process has been gone through; and the impatience natural to human nature of course in such cases gives a price that more than covers the expense of breaking-in.

"From the two classes of women I have thus described most of the consorts of persons high in rank are taken. Such are the mothers of the ministers of the Sublime Porte, ay, and of all the sultans that have ever reigned on the shores of the Bosphorus; for the Sultan does not, in those simple countries, either beg the hand of a princess he has never seen, or, imitating a common man, choose a wife among the coquettes of a ball-room. The state provides the partner of his couch. At various periods of the year, fixed by law, the Council of Ministers and the Ulemas, in conclave assembled, vote, as it were, a subsidy of girls, bought at the public markets, or at private sales, and send them with high solemnities into the arms of his Sublime Majesty. On these occasions the Sultan goes in pompous procession to the mosque; and, no doubt, thanks Heaven for the large supply of angels which have come to illuminate his solitary hours."

While so much earnest enthusiasm on the subject of negro slavery is displayed in England, it is strange that the far more disgraceful slave-trade in which the Turks are engaged excites little feeling among our Christian philanthropists:—

"Although at various times firmans have been published announcing the suppression of slave bazaars, the slave-trade goes on with undiminished vigour. It is true that the markets where blacks were sold were for some time closed; but they have since been opened once more. During the interval that elapsed nothing was gained by humanity. The trade went on in the caravanseiras, and in private houses, and on board the vessels in which the blacks arrived from Egypt, or the coast of Barbary. In fact it was difficult to make the Turks give up their regular supply of household servants;—it would have been impossible to make them give up their supply of wives and mistresses. The markets of Georgian and other white slaves continued to be kept open whilst the Reform was most triumphant; and indeed any change in this respect was evidently impracticable as long as the harims of the great dignitaries of the empire were changed into Bride Nurseries and Love Depôts!"

On the religious and philosophical tenets of Islamism, Mr. St. John makes judicious and appropriate comments. Some social virtues he does not deny the Moslems to possess, and their hospitality was lately honourably displayed in the reception and protection of Kossuth and other illustrious exiles. But these virtues are of a kind common to all nations and creeds, whereas the peculiar influences of the Mahommedan faith are destructive of whatever is honest and pure, and lovely and of good report in human life and character:

"I have heard of attempts made to palliate the evil effects of the doctrine of Fatality, which is the central one of Mahommedan philosophy and religion. If it be desirable that men should pass through life with the want of foresight of beasts; that they should nurse themselves in stupid confidence in external assistance; that they should rely on anything but their own exertions; that they should look blindfolded as it were towards the future; we may admit the utility of this doctrine. It certainly relieves the Muslim from many of the anxieties which torment us, and enables him to pass through life, whatever varieties of ill-fortune may occasionally disturb him, in a sort of animal felicity. If the storm finds him without a shelter, he forgets his sufferings as soon as he has dried himself in the sun. For my part, however, I see no beauty in this state of apathy, and have no desire to taste of this moral opium. Let us suffer all that we are placed here to suffer, without seeking for consolation in the deadening of our faculties and the numbing of our sentiments. There is nothing to be envied in Turkish civilization that ought not to be produced in a better and more cheerful form by our Faith."

On the whole, Mr. St. John's book gives us a lamentable idea of the internal condition of the Turkish empire in Europe. Little satisfaction and no enthusiasm can be felt in supporting the political power of such a country. To enter on the practical remedy suggested by Mr. St. John for the evils which he describes, would lead us too far into political discussions and arguments. We refer our readers to his book for a faithful account of the actual condition of the Turks in Europe, and for an able advocacy of the establishment of a new Greek or Byzantine empire.

Cavalry; its History and Tactics. By Captain L. E. Nolan, 15th Hussars. Bosworth.

To military men this is a work of importance, while it contains much that will interest the general reader. "The Camp at Chobham," and the brilliant manœuvres witnessed there, have brought the affairs of the army before the immediate view of many civilians, who before knew little of the movements of troops in the field. They can now form some clearer idea of the descriptions of the actual operations of war, and will read with more intelligence the accounts of battles memorable in history. The British have not been so distinguished in cavalry as in other arms of the service. "In the last great European war," Captain Nolan justly observes,—

"They were superior to that of most nations in the headlong courage of the men, the quality of their horses and equipments, but unfortunately inferior in tactics: the published despatches of our greatest commander bear too frequent testimony to the fact that our officers often neglected to provide reserves when they charged, or to take other necessary precautions, the want of which entailed occasional defeat upon our troops, in spite of the determined bravery which they displayed upon all occasions."

Captain Nolan has served in the continental cavalry, as well as for many years in our own army, at home and in the East, and has more than ordinary acquaintance with the subject which he now brings before the public. The book commences with an historical sketch of the services of cavalry in the wars of ancient and modern times. From the notices of ancient warfare, we give the account of the Battle of Cannæ:—

"The Carthaginian horse won the battle of Cannæ (B.C. 216). The Romans brought 80,000 foot and 6000 cavalry into the field: Hannibal had 40,000 foot and 10,000 horse.

"The Roman right wing rested on the Aufidus: both armies had their cavalry on the flanks.

"Hasdrubal first attacked the Roman horse with his cavalry, and drove them into the river. The battle now raged along the whole line. The Roman infantry, as usual, were everywhere victorious. The Numidian cavalry on Hannibal's right were engaged in a doubtful contest with the enemy's horse opposed to them.

"Hasdrubal, who had done his work on the left, suddenly appeared on the right, defeated the cavalry, and, after sending the Numidians in pursuit, threw himself on the conquering Roman Legions, and in spite of their heroic efforts burst in amongst them, and defeated them with fearful slaughter. Æmilius Paulus and more than 40,000 Romans were slain, and most of the survivors made prisoners. Polybius gives the loss of the Romans at 70,000 men, but attributes their defeat to the fact of the Carthaginians being so superior in cavalry; and he adduces this battle in proof of his assertion, 'that it is better to have only half the number of infantry, if you are superior in cavalry, than to be on a perfect equality of all arms with the enemy.'

"The wide open plain, now called the Table of Apulia, on which this memorable battle took place, was admirably adapted to cavalry evolutions. It will be remembered how Æmilius endeavoured to persuade his rash and ignorant colleague Varro not to risk a battle there. After the combat Varro escaped to the near town of Venusium with only 70 horse. It is affirmed that in all this battle of Cannæ, in which he made such use of that arm, Hannibal lost only some 200 horse. It was mainly through his cavalry, and his skill in handling it, that this truly great commander, generally cut off from all supplies from Carthage, was enabled to maintain himself in Italy for nearly sixteen long years."

Of the early history of English cavalry the most important chapter relates to the contests of the civil war, when Cromwell and Rupert met in well-fought fields:—

"The English cavalry, under Cromwell and his fiery adversary Prince Rupert, claim especial notice; for from the numerous cavalry engagements of that period many good and useful lessons may yet be gleaned by the cavalry soldier.

"Cromwell, forty-four years of age when he first drew a sword, showed himself a great soldier at the very outset. He himself raised, organised, and disciplined his troops of horse, and set his men an example which they were not slow in following. His mental and bodily energy, his vigorous conceptions, quick decision, and the dread vehemence with which he urged his war-steed into the thick of battle, made of him a cavalry leader second to none in history. Indefatigable and active, a good horseman, and perfect master of the broadsword, he had unbounded ascendancy over the minds of his followers, and led them through, or over, all obstacles that human prowess could surmount.

"The impetuosity and rashness of Prince Rupert were no match for the cool courage and presence of mind of Cromwell. The latter often turned defeat into victory; the former lost many a fair field by letting his cavalry out of hand after a first success; and, during his absence, his wary and more able opponent secured the prize.

"At Grantham the Royalists had one-and-

twenty troops of horse, and three or four of dragoons. The troop consisted of sixty men, one captain, a lieutenant, a cornet, and a quartermaster.

"Cromwell drew out about twelve troops to meet them; they formed at musket shot from each other, and the dragoons fired for half an hour, or more. Cromwell then led his troopers on to the charge, sword in hand; the Royalists received him standing, and were at once overthrown; he followed them up for some miles, each trooper killing two or three men in their pursuit.

"At Gainsborough, after a skirmish with the enemy's advance, Cromwell gained the crest of a hill, and saw suddenly a great body of the Royalist horse facing him, and close to him, with a good reserve of a whole regiment of cavalry behind it. Though taken by surprise, Cromwell led on his horsemen to meet the foe, who were pressing forward to take him at a disadvantage. A good fight with sword and pistol ensued, till the Roundheads, pressing in upon their adversaries, routed the whole body, and immediately pursued, doing execution upon them for five or six miles.

"Cromwell, however, who commanded the right wing, kept back Major Whalley and three troops of horse from the chase; these he at once formed up, and, observing the enemy's reserve, under General Cavendish, charge the Lincolners and rout them, he suddenly galloped in on his rear, drove horses and men off the field at the sword's point, and killed Cavendish.

"At the famous and disastrous battle of Marston Moor, fought on the 2nd of July, 1644, Cromwell signally distinguished himself, and gave Prince Rupert a taste of the steel of his Ironsides which the latter did not at all relish.

"A junction had been formed between the Scotch army and the English Parliamentary forces, and they invested York. Prince Rupert and the Marquis of Newcastle joined their forces to raise the siege, for the possession of this ancient city was of great importance to them in a military point of view.

"The opposing forces numbered about 50,000; they were drawn up with a ditch between them, and did not get into position till five in the evening: the king's troops facing the west, their opponents the east. A long and bloody contest then ensued. At first neither party would give up the advantage which the dam and ditch gave to those who remained on the defensive, till Lord Manchester moved forward with the left wing of the Parliamentary army to the attack, seconded by Cromwell, who commanded the cavalry of that wing.

"The attack was successful at every point, though a desperate fight took place between Cromwell's and Rupert's horsemen. Cromwell had kept part of his cavalry in reserve; these suddenly fell upon the Royalists whilst engaged in the *mêlée* with him, and completely defeated them.

"The right wing of the Royalists was now closely pursued by horse and foot, and driven far back behind the left wing.

"The exact counterpart to this had taken place on the opposite wings of the contending armies.

"The left wing of the Royalists had advanced, attacked, and driven back the right wing of the Parliament, defeating their horsemen, who, in galloping to the rear, spread confusion and dismay among the reserves of Scotch infantry.

"Lord Manchester only heard of what had happened on his right after Sir Thomas Fairfax's troops had fled some miles on the road to Tadcaster; and Cromwell, at once collecting his cavalry from the pursuit, turned and followed the victorious Royalists towards that place. These formed to receive him, were defeated, and fled. Thus Cromwell, by his energy and courage, won the day, after some of the chief generals had left the field, and given the battle up as lost."

For many centuries the finest cavalry in Europe was that of the Turks, but they have long lost this supremacy, and Captain Nolan gives it as his decided opinion that under the

modern discipline, *alla Franca*, or in Christian fashion, introduced by the late Sultan Mahmoud, and extended by his successor Abdul Medjid, "the Turkish cavalry is the worst in the world."

"The men, always accustomed to sit cross-legged, and to keep their knees near the abdomen, cannot be taught to ride with the long stirrup, *à la Française*. They are always rolling off, and are frequently ruptured; they are armed with the lance, and have seldom any other weapon except an ill-made, blunt, awkward sabre. Their horses are now wretched *rosses*. The good breeds have died out, and the Imperial, centralizing tyranny—masked under the names of reform and civilization—which has been raging with more or less intensity these last fifty years, has not left on the surface of the empire a man of hereditary rank and wealth, or any private country gentleman, with the means of restoring the lost breeds, or of supplying such good light cavalry horses as existed in abundance at the commencement of the present century. The Karasman Oglus, the Paswan Oglus, and all those great Asiatic feudatories, together with the hereditary Spahi chiefs of Roumelia, who kept up the principal studs, are all gone! Mounted as they are, armed as they are, and riding as they do, instead of dealing with European horsemen after the summary fashion of the good old Turks, any English hussar ought to be able to dispose, in a minute, of half a dozen of Abdul Medjid's troopers, trained *alla Franca*, though he (the hussar) were armed only with a stout walking-stick. Add to these effects of ill-considered European imitation (which has scarcely been better as applied to the Turkish infantry) the decline or rather utter extinction of religious fervour and all national feeling, and it will be understood how well prepared is the army of the Ottoman empire to resist an attack—let it come whence it may, or when it may."

Under Frederick the Great the Prussian cavalry maintained an excellence that has never been reached by any other nation, and their exploits chiefly contributed to the successful glory of the Seven Years' War:—

"It was a favourite saying of Frederick, that three horsemen in the enemy's rear do more than fifty in front; and his generals always tried to attack front, flank, and rear at the same time. In the two first attacks, or in front and flank, they generally succeeded. How they did so has remained a mystery to this day. It however appears that they generally seized the moment when the combined use of artillery and infantry, or the use of either singly, had made an impression, and then dashed in; or that they rapidly gained the enemy's flank and charged home. Out of twenty-two great battles fought by Frederick or his generals, the cavalry thus employed decided the fate of fifteen.

"To his cavalry in action Frederick gave no orders beyond general directions as to which part of the field it was to act in. The moment for attack was always left to the generals commanding the cavalry, who, after securing their flanks, and providing a reserve, spurred and started; and, being once started, they pushed on whilst there was an enemy in the field."

Under Napoleon the French cavalry became a formidable arm, but never played the same part in the issue of battle that Frederick the Great enabled the Prussian horse to achieve:

"Napoleon's horsemen were not at home in their saddles; they were heavily equipped, and could not move with speed: he therefore formed them into very large masses, which obtained the curious name of *Corps d'Armée de Cavalerie*. In these large corps he attached guns to each regiment, and used deep formations for attack; thus his cavalry played a secondary part to the artillery; its movements were cramped, its approach necessarily slow, and, as it was always heralded by its own cannon, the enemy was seldom taken by surprise (except at *Marengo*), but had time to prepare a reception which cost the French masses of horse very dear.

Still his horsemen, mostly clad in defensive armour, were poured on slowly but in irresistible numbers, and thus, regardless of the loss of life, Napoleon by their means won many a field. Even allowing for all the brilliancy of Murat, it may be doubted whether he had one cavalry leader whom Frederick the Great would have called good.

"Napoleon's cavalry generals often failed in bringing their troops into action at the right time, and often threw them too early into the scale, and so, when a reserve of cavalry might have decided the fate of battle, none was forthcoming.

"They often neglected to protect their flanks or to have a reserve at hand in case of disaster. In 1813, on the 16th of October, near Leipzig, the cavalry corps of Latour-Maubourg and Kellermann, about 5000 horses, led by Murat in person, attacked the centre of the Allied Army advancing by Wachau towards Gossa, overthrew the division of Russian Light Cavalry of the Guard, captured thirty pieces of cannon, and broke through the line: but 400 Cossacks of the Guard, gallantly led, fell upon their flank, and not only retook all the guns, but drove them back in confusion, turning the whole affair to the advantage of the allies. These Cossacks had to gain the flank of the enemy by a path which only admitted of single files."

Leaving the historical part of the work, we must briefly notice some of Captain Nolan's practical remarks on cavalry tactics and accoutrements. After stating the advantages of the branch in general, he devotes considerable space to a comparison of the merits of heavy and light cavalry, and decidedly gives the preference to the latter, presenting many instances in illustration. For our own army there can be little doubt that a light cavalry is the suitable one. We can never bring into the field the numerical masses of horsemen found in continental armies, and our object must be to combine the dash and rapidity of the Cossacks, and other famous light troops, with the utmost discipline, determination, and physical strength, for which Englishmen are characteristic:—

"It may be said that generally Englishmen have a fondness for the horse, and a natural aptitude for the saddle. Though not 'Abipones,' we are certainly an equestrian nation. Left to his own free natural seat, and the Englishman beats the world in a ride after the hounds and a run across country. Since the peace of 1815 this manly sport—the best of all to form bold riders—has been taken up in some of the Continental nations; but it is indigenous—national and natural—to none of them; and, in spite of the interruption of railroads, we may still find at some single "meet" (without even going into Leicestershire) more riders of the right sort than are to be found on the whole Continent of Europe, if you deduct the Englishmen who are there resident, and who get up the Continental hunts, steeple-chases, &c. Our very ladies would beat, on the field, all their mathematical riding masters, and take gates, fences, and ditches, from which foreign officers of hussars or their dragoon rough-riders would turn aside in dismay to look out for a break or gap.

"In our selection of men for cavalry regiments we ought to have more regard to agility, alertness, and quickness of sight than to mere size. In fact, even with our good breeds, nearly all our horses are over-weighted. More than half of our lights are really heavies, and would be so considered in every other European army.

"It is not necessary that our hussars and dragoons should be men of five feet nine inches, or even five feet seven inches; but it is quite essential that they should be active, intelligent, and quick-sighted. Now, these qualities, and in combination of great physical strength, you may find in men not exceeding five feet four inches; and here, while your men are equal in value, you improve the value and efficiency of your horse, by lightening the burden on his back. The Hungarian hussars, who continue to be esteemed as about the best light

troops in Europe, are composed of compact, well-set, little men. In one of their finest regiments the average height did not exceed five feet four inches of our measurement.

"Our light cavalry, made up of big men and heavily accoutred, is an inconsistency and a contradiction. When a man, with his arms and horse furniture, rides twenty stone (and we have seen them of that weight), is he not out of his element in any cavalry, more particularly so in a light regiment? A fine young recruit, measuring five feet eight inches or even five feet ten inches, and being aged between eighteen and twenty-one, may not weigh much more than ten stone; but take the same individual, and weigh him after seven or eight years of service and regular living,—or take and weigh him again when he is approaching the age of thirty-five: at either period you will almost invariably find him too heavy for a cavalry soldier. What is to be done with him? His term of service may be incomplete, or he may wish to remain in the service, although conscious that he is no longer fit to be a horseman. Could not he, and such as he, be drafted into the infantry or foot guards, and room be thus made for a light recruit? One regiment would gain a disciplined soldier, requiring little to be taught to him, and the other would gain what it wants, light weight."

Captain Nolan discusses in great detail the proper weapons and accoutrements of the cavalry soldier, but this part of the work is too technical to admit of extracts being presented that would interest other than professional readers. But generally we would remark that his suggestions are admirable, and quite in accordance with what we might expect from the following passage in the prefatory remarks:—

"The remarks on dress, equipment, drill, &c., are merely the application of the principle of common sense to objects which, though useful, perhaps indispensable, when first introduced, have become positively noxious in the course of time, when they have long outgrown the purpose for which they were introduced, but are still allowed to linger because change in what is so thoroughly organised is always difficult, and sometimes dangerous; but certainly neither so difficult nor so dangerous as a blind adherence to exploded theories or antiquated usages, which must eventually be abandoned on the first rude shock of war."

The practical style of this part of the treatise, intermingled with historical illustration, will be favourably seen in the following passage, containing the closing remarks on the carbine, and the commencement of the comparison of the lance and sword as effective weapons:—

"It appears to me that the distances for which they are now sighting soldiers' carbines abroad are quite ridiculous. Few have eyes good enough to see a man or even a column so far off. This custom, if not altered, will lead to the men firing at everything they fancy they see in the distance, causing constant false alarms in camp. No supplies of ammunition will suffice for troops firing in this manner. It may be very well for some foreign troops to stand out at such long shots, and so keep danger far off; but I hope and trust that an honest Englishman will always like to look his enemy nearer in the face. I think that cavalry carbines if sighted up to 300 yards would more than suffice for all purposes. One of the greatest difficulties of the officer is to make his men reserve their fire. Surely nothing should be done to increase this difficulty, or to tempt the men to such long shots.

"The Lance and the Sword.—Formerly it was a received opinion that the lance was particularly formidable in single encounters, that the lancer should be a light, active horseman, and that space was required whereon he might manage his horse and turn him always towards the object at which he was to thrust. But of late there seems to be rather a disposition to take up Marshal Marmont's notion of arming heavy cavalry with lances, to

break infantry as well as cavalry. All seem to forget that a lance is useless in a *mêlée*, that the moment the lancer pulls up and the impulsive power is stopped, that instant the power of the weapon is gone.

"The 16th Lancers broke into the Sikh squares at Aliwal, and in the *mêlée* that ensued these brave men attacked the lancers sword in hand and brought many of them low, for they could effect nothing with the lance.

"In the second Sikh war, I have been told that our lancers often failed in driving their lances into a Sikh because they had shawls wrapped round them. I could tell them a better reason: it was because those who failed did not know that it requires speed to drive a lance home, and that it must be carried into the object by the horse.

I have often seen, when hog-hunting, men with spears sharp as razors unable to drive the weapon through the boar's hide, whereas others (old hands) would send a spear in at one side and out at the other, through bone and all.

"This shows that the lance is not a dangerous weapon in *all* hands, and therefore unfit for soldiers.

"All experiments with blunt lances on fresh horses go for nothing, in my opinion, for many of the thrusts would not go through a man's jacket; and in a campaign, when horses are fatigued, and will not answer the spur, even the skilful horseman is helpless with a lance in his hand.

"At speed you can drive a lance through anything, but not so at a slower pace; and at a walk, and a stand, you become helpless, and the thrust can be put aside with ease, or the pole seized with the hand.

"If the advantage of the lance is in its long reach, the longer the weapon the more formidable. The French *gensdarmes*, whose lances were eighteen feet long, suffered such dreadful defeats that they gave up the weapon altogether.

"Gustavus Adolphus took the lances away from his cavalry in the Thirty Years' War. He had practically experienced their inefficiency.

"Let us allow, for the sake of argument, that a lance of a proper length, handy, well poised, and held at its centre, reaches further beyond the horse's head than the point of a sword held at arm's length: in what way can this conduce to success, when it is universally acknowledged that it is the superior impetus and speed of one of the advancing lines which overthrows the other; the weapons only coming into play afterwards?

"The lancers' pennons attract the fire of artillery; and in single combat they betray to the adversary where the danger is, and thus enable him to avoid it; and if they sometimes frighten an adversary's horse, the animal shies and carries his master out of reach of the point which, if not decorated, might have run him through the body.

"The Asiatics carry a light spear (without pennon), which they say they leave in the body of their first foe (or throw away), but take to their swords when the tug of war comes fast and fierce.

"I believe that the only advantage of the lance lies in the moral effect produced (particularly on young soldiers), not only by its longer reach, but by the deadly effect of the home thrusts. Thus in the Seven Years' War, the Prussian hussars were at first very shy of the lances used by the Russians: some of the Prussian officers rode out in front of the line engaged, and cut down several of the Cossacks and lancers in single combat, showing their men how easy it was to despatch them by closing upon them at once; and thus encouraged, the hussars soon mastered their opponents."

The Appendix contains some important documents bearing on various subjects discussed in the work, including some letters and statements of distinguished cavalry officers, confirming the author's views and suggestions. There are also illustrations and plans, which add to the completeness and utility of this admirable manual for the cavalry officer.

NOTICES.

The Bible of the Reformation Reformed. With Preface, Introduction, Commentary, Indexes, &c. By John Finch. Rigby.

MR. FINCH proclaims that the time has come for a second Reformation of Christianity. The work of the Lutheran epoch has run its course. The Reformers broke open the secret cabinet in which all classes of priests, Pagan, Jewish, and Christian, had previously encased and hid the sacred oracles. The printing-press and the Bible Societies have put the scriptures into the hands of all nations. Alas! the result has been that "the Bible has given rise to innumerable sects, widely differing in opinion and in practice from each other, who have for three centuries past been continually disputing about speculative notions of no practical importance or utility to mankind." In this state of affairs many say, Let us return to Rome, the authorised interpreter and expositor of the word. But Mr. Finch would retain the right of private judgment, and he publishes what he calls a Reformed Bible as the instrument of a new Reformation. We insert his own words, descriptive of the motives by which he is actuated. "For the purpose of enabling the poor to understand the gospel—to arrange the scriptures so as to make the first two volumes books suitable for all schools, to read in all pulpits, in all private families, and by all individuals,—to terminate all strife and contentions about modes of faith and forms of worship, and thus promote peace on earth and good will among men, are the objects sought by the editor of this book." Great objects, indeed, and far too great to be accomplished by literary labour such as Mr. Finch has bestowed. The books of the Bible are rearranged in particular order, not on very definite principles; the head of Mysteries, for instance, containing extracts of a very miscellaneous kind, and the Book of Visions comprising many of the prophetic passages and miraculous narratives. It is strange how Mr. Finch professes to believe in the Divine origin of the scriptures, and at the same time ridicules belief in miracles, and holds other tenets of directly sceptical and infidel tendency. The notes and introductions to the several books into which he divides the sacred writings are scarcely worthy of notice either from their learning or their ability. The best thing about the whole volume is the retention of the authorised English version of the Bible, the arrangement and not the translation being altered by Mr. Finch.

Sabbath Laws and Sabbath Duties considered in Relation to their Natural and Scriptural Grounds and to the Principles of Religious Liberty. By Robert Cox. Edinburgh: MacLachlan and Stewart.

In this bulky volume, the questions connected with Sabbath observance are discussed at great length. For English readers, Mr. Cox's book has the disadvantage of having been too much prepared with reference to local and temporary controversies in the northern parts of the island. There may or may not be in Scotland a tendency to treat the Christian Sabbath in the same light as that of the ancient Jews, and on this point a large part of the controversies described by Mr. Cox will be found to turn. But he also undertakes the discussion of the subject in its more general aspects, legal, moral, and theological. The book contains abundant extracts from authors of all kinds who have written on the question, with reports of proceedings of public associations, newspaper articles, parliamentary debates, and other documents. There is therefore much valuable matter for reference, and the work contains a very complete statement of the views of different parties on points of controversy connected with Sabbath laws and duties. But the spirit and tone of the book are very offensive. Not satisfied with advocating a more liberal observance of a day which, under the Christian dispensation, has not the same obligations that the Jewish Sabbath by Divine appointment possesses, Mr. Cox uses the discussion as a vehicle of abuse of revealed religion and of its ordinances and ministers. Clerical despots, Sabbatarian saints, and similar terms, are

employed to raise prejudice against those who conscientiously hold opinions opposed to those of the author. Mr. Cox is evidently a supporter of the system of natural religion, of which Mr. Combe, the phrenologist, and author of 'The Constitution of Man,' is one of the principal expositors. We agree with Mr. Cox in some of his conclusions, and would support some of his practical suggestions for a more liberal interpretation of the Scriptural ordinances on the Sabbath, but have no sympathy with him in his anti-Christian arguments, and the dangerous results, not only to religious truth but to moral and social order, which the full carrying out of his principles would involve. Mr. Cox reasons on the grounds of materialism, and while we cannot withhold assent from many of his statements and arguments so far as they relate to the welfare of man as the highest of mere animals, there are relations to spiritual and eternal things which this treatise virtually ignores.

Paddington: Past and Present. By William Robins. A. and W. Hall.

COMMENCING with the examination of certain matters affecting his interests as a local rate-payer, Mr. Robins continued his researches till he had collected materials for a full and comprehensive account of Paddington, historical, descriptive, and statistical. That metropolitan district has marvelously altered since the time when Canning's comparison held good,—

"Pitt is to Addington,
As London is to Paddington."

In half a century the rate of increase may be estimated by the number of houses having increased from 350 in 1801, to 6500 in 1851, the population at the same periods being 1881 and 46,306. The increase in wealth, as exhibited by rentals, rates, and taxes, has been in a still greater ratio. Much of Mr. Robins's book is chiefly of local importance, but there are also many points of general interest. Not the least valuable part of Mr. Robins's researches is his statement of the existing state of the ecclesiastical, educational, and charitable endowments and funds connected with the parish. From the 'Paddington rents' the see of London has an enormous revenue, the right disposition of which, for the benefit of the district, is justly demanded. The work will usefully call attention to subjects of higher importance than those of mere antiquarian or topographical interest.

The Principles of Commerce and Commercial Law, Explained in a Course of Lectures. By Sir George Stephen, Barrister-at-Law. Crookford.

As an elementary exposition of the principles of commerce, this is a most useful practical treatise. In the form of lectures, originally delivered in colloquial style to a small class at Liverpool, Sir George Stephen gives a concise, but complete and satisfactory, course of instruction on all matters most essential to be known by those entering into commercial pursuits. Brokers, discount, bills of exchange, accommodation bills, shipping, insurance, customs, book-keeping, partnership, credit, markets and prices, exchanges, banking, are among the subjects forming the headings of the various lectures. For the information of general readers, as well as the instruction of commercial students, the book is admirably suited. Sound principles are explained in a simple style, and enforced by familiar and practical illustrations. As an introduction to the more elaborate works of McCulloch and Leone Levi, the lectures will be found useful, while they contain as much information as is requisite for ordinary purposes of business, or for such knowledge of the principles of commerce and trade as all educated men are expected to possess.

The Natural History of the Birds of Ireland, Indigenous and Migratory. By John J. Watters. Dublin: McGlashan.

WITH the ornithology of Ireland, the name of the late lamented William Thompson, of Belfast, is inseparably associated. The present volume has a favourable introduction to public notice in its having been prepared at the suggestion and with the approval of that distinguished naturalist, who often wished that there was some popular history of the

birds of Ireland, more likely than his own, from its size, to come into general circulation. Mr. Watters, from his zoological studies and his zeal as a field-naturalist, was well qualified to undertake such a work, and he adds attractiveness of style to the other requisites for a popular manual of so interesting a branch of natural history. For scientific accuracy the work may safely be commended, while the descriptions and anecdotes display literary ability and taste, as well as technical knowledge and zoological enthusiasm. The number of species in the Irish Fauna amounts to 261, of the habits, migration, and economy of which Mr. Watters gives descriptions, which are at once instructive to the student of natural history, and entertaining to the general reader.

SUMMARY.

Of the historical and descriptive poem, *Ruins of Many Lands*, by Nicholas Michell (Tegg and Co.), a new edition, the fourth, contains additional matter and notes. In this poem the author describes, with historical accuracy, and occasionally with much spirit, the scenes and events suggested by the ruins of ancient empires, beginning with Babylon and Nineveh, and ranging over many lands down to the fall of the Roman power. Apart from the poetical merits of the work, which are considerable, it is a valuable historical manual, few characters or scenes most worthy of remembrance and study in ancient times being omitted in the text or the notes.

Among recent educational works we may class a treatise on *The Art of Reasoning*, being a popular exposition of the principles of logic, inductive and deductive, by Samuel Neil (Walton and Maberly). The substance of the work appeared in a serial, 'The British Controversialist,' in 1850, 1851, and is now reprinted, with the addition of an introductory outline of the History of Logic, and an appendix on 'Recent Logical Developments,' the latter containing a judicious and comprehensive statement of the present state of the literature of the art of reasoning, with brief notices of the chief works published of late years on logical science. Mr. Neil's own work is an excellent manual of logic, suitable either for private study, or as a text-book for pupils in select classes in mental philosophy.

In Arnold's school classics, *Xenophon's Anabasis* (Rivingtons), explained by Dr. F. K. Hertle, is translated from the German, with notes and grammatical references, by the Rev. Henry Browne, M.A. The notes render the work more useful for scholastic use. A brief historical and critical introduction is prefixed. We scarcely know what Dr. Hertle means by expressing surprise that the Greek narrative is written in the third person, and discussing various questions arising out of this peculiarity, so far as to speak of the authorship being doubtful. In the 'Hellenica,' Xenophon refers to the author of the 'Anabasis' under the name of Themistogenes; but Plutarch explains this as having been done in order to gain more entire confidence for the truth of the narrative, as there were many Spartans especially, who were strongly prejudiced against the Athenian soldier. Like Caesar, Xenophon, in drawing up the formal history from his recollection and journals, speaks in the third person. The appearance of the accounts having been received by the author from others, and prepared by an ideal writer, Themistogenes, was a piece of policy on the part of Xenophon, and the manner in which the plan is sustained is a striking proof of his literary ingenuity and ability. There is only one place, we believe, where the first person is used in the narrative. The whole style is entirely that of his other works, and the unanimous testimony of antiquity ascribes to him the authorship.

Of some miscellaneous pamphlets we can only give the titles. *Past and Present State of Education and Civilization in Ceylon*, by S. R. Mutukistina (MacLachlan and Stewart, Edinburgh), refers to subjects of deep importance to the island and those connected with it, but which in the

present state of public affairs can scarcely attract much general notice. Of some importance connected with navigation are *Suggestions on the Principle of Ship Building on the Transverse or Diagonal Principles of Planking*, by William Annesley.

Under the title of *The Prussian Oculist* (Hatchard), an English clergyman has published a memoir of the celebrated Dr. de Leuw, and of his establishment at Grafath, whither from all parts of the world resort those who are afflicted with eye diseases. Excepting a brief notice in the pleasant 'Log of the Water Lily,' published last year, there has been no account of Grafath in English. This little work gives a biographical notice of Dr. de Leuw, with some account of 'the Hofrath's' practice, and ample details as to the mode of life at Grafath; and, while it serves as a guide-book, contains all necessary information about travelling, passports, and expenses.

An American book, *Salad for the Solitary*, by an Epicure (Bentley), contains under this figurative title a medley of light literary reading, under such headings as 'Facts and Fancies about Flowers,' 'The Shrines of Genius,' 'Dying Words of Distinguished Men,' 'Pleasures of the Pen,' 'Citations from the Cemeteries,' 'Sleep and its Mysteries.' The subjects are varied and interesting, but the author's style is not good, and the frequent efforts at smartness and pun-making are offensive to good taste. He has, however, collected and arranged a large amount of curious literary matter, while some parts of the book, as the chapter on 'The Talkative and the Taciturn,' display acute observation of character as well as learned research.

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PHYSICAL SCIENCE AND THE UNIVERSITIES.

THE Professor of Chemistry and Botany in Oxford has at length put forth a manifesto against the dogma, widely circulated of late, but happily not very popular, that the Universities "cannot give an effective scientific education." We had thought that the question which heads Dr. Daubeny's pamphlet—"Can Physical Science obtain a Home in an English University?"—had been answered long ago by the evidence of the University Commissions. But an article from the pen of one of the old Oxford régime appeared in the 'Quarterly Review' of June last, endeavouring, somewhat tardily, to show that physical science has left the academic walls never to return, and that the whole proposed scheme of University reform is "a blunder, a theory, and a joke." The Commissioners are dubbed a set of enthusiasts, tossing their "ideas and questions across a table in battledore and shuttlecock fashion not worthy of the name of thought," intent on working out "their own hobbies" regardless of "self-evident truths," and "degrading and disgracing every other order to make way for their own." "They have treated the University," says the reviewer, "like an insatiable carpet-bag, stuffed it with legislators till it cannot stir, and crammed it with teachers till its head turns round," "while at the same time they have wholly passed by rightful claimants, and neglected reforms which were wanted, on the ground of solid justice." The reviewer holds a notion that the Universities can only teach effectively what may be learned out of books, and that medicine-teaching and physical science-teaching have migrated to London for the sake of being within range of the metropolitan hospitals and museums. The Oxford and Cambridge Universities are described as having maintained the intellectual leadership in all branches of knowledge during the middle ages, and were the centres, among the rest, of natural science, because science was at that time dogmatic, and only taught in books. But as soon as the discovery was made that the observation of nature was necessary to science, the teaching had to submit to a new test. The University was not a place in which nature could be seen, and it was left, therefore, to teach only such branches of knowledge as could be learned by brain and book,—by logic and the process of reasoning.

Dr. Daubeny's position being a delicate one, he does not "enter the lists either as the assailant or the vindicator of the Oxford Commission." He writes with calmness and caution, and his opinions, as a sound and eminent teacher, and as one of the chief founders of a school of natural science in Oxford, are entitled to very high respect. "The migration of studies," says the Professor, "which in the middle ages were exclusively carried on within the walls of the cloister and the college, is deduced by the reviewer from two principal causes; first, that since the introduction of the inductive method of philosophy, facts are no longer sought to be arrived at by logical reasoning from a few abstract and arbitrarily assumed principles, but are collected by observation and experiment; secondly, because, as he contends, the Natural Sciences inevitably follow in the train of Medicine, and because the latter can only be satisfactorily taught in localities where the diseases engendered by an over-

flowing population supply a large amount of clinical instruction.

"Nay, he would persuade us, that the sciences which reveal to us the laws of matter, not only cannot be taught, but even cannot be cultivated with much success within our existing Universities.

"The Chemist, for example, according to him, will be placed under a disadvantage from the want of skilled workmen at hand to construct his apparatus; the Mineralogist and the Geologist will be equally at a loss for collections ample enough to illustrate his inquiries; and even the Astronomer or the Mechanician, however well he may be supplied with the requisite appliances for study, will suffer from the absence of scientific intercourse.

"Hence it is argued, that if the Physical Sciences have deserted their original cradles for the larger cities of the empire, we are bound to attribute their migration, rather to the mode in which scientific investigations are now conducted, than to any want of encouragement in the Universities themselves, or to the engrossing nature of other studies fostered in those seats of learning; so that it is the result, not of circumstances peculiar to ourselves, but of those affecting alike all countries, and every system of academical teaching."

The 'Quarterly' reviewer discommends the admission of physical science as an element in the system of secular studies, preceding the preparation for holy orders, but concedes that it "may do considerable service in providing knowledge that would be useful to the future country gentleman for his land." Upon this Dr. Daubeny remarks,—

"The concession made by the Reviewer, in favour of the admission of Physical Science as an element of general education, is too much narrowed and restricted, to do away with the damaging tendency of his previous assumption; and hence it becomes still necessary for those who are interested in the promotion of scientific studies in this University, to protest against the idea, that such pursuits are so out of place amongst an academic body, so alien to the genius of our Institutions, as the Reviewer would wish us to believe.

"I am myself, in the first place, at a loss to understand on what principle the different mode in which Medicine is studied now than heretofore, should necessarily have the effect of transferring its study, even from its very commencement, from the Universities to the Metropolis.

"If, indeed, which I doubt, there ever was a time in the profession in which the dogmas of learned men altogether superseded the lessons of experience, then of course the Universities would appear the most appropriate places for sending forth a finished physician; and, on the other hand, if, which God forbid, the time should ever arrive, when medical practice becomes so wholly empirical, as to discard all aid from mechanics, from chemistry, and from general physiology, the craft (for Science it could no longer be called) will then, not only be perfected, but even must commence, at the great Metropolitan Hospitals. But neither the dictates of common sense, nor the usage of other enlightened nations, justify us in considering such an arrangement as a necessary one. Had it been so considered, Blumenbach would never have collected round him so numerous a band of disciples at Göttingen, nor would Tiedemann at Tubingen—the smaller Universities in Germany would have been deserted by this class of students, whilst Prague, Vienna, and Berlin, would have enjoyed the monopoly of medical education.

"It is, indeed, not to be wondered at, that such a notion should prevail in England, where the long duration of the preparatory education enforced, and until lately the entire omission in it of that element, which to a medical student is the one most essential, namely, the study of the laws of matter, has banished from our Universities the larger portion of the medical profession; and has compelled the few who submit to this previous training, to devote a portion of the time which they subsequently spend in the Metropolis to the acquisition of that preliminary knowledge of Physical Science, without which their bedside experience would be useless and even prejudicial.

"Surely there can be no reason why the medical student, or the apothecary's apprentice, if he were not prevented by other considerations from graduating at our Universities, should not derive as much advantage from Lectures on Mechanical and Chemical Philosophy, aye, even on Anatomy and General Physiology, there delivered, as he does at present from the crowded Schools of Paris or London; nor does it seem clear, why it should be regarded more advantageous to prosecute all these studies simultaneously with clinical practice, and thus to begin erecting the superstructure, whilst we are still employed upon the foundation.

"But, we may be told, it is but waste of time to discuss a question, which in this country has been already practically decided by the voice of public opinion, and to attempt to divert from its present channel the great stream of Medical Students, by whom an attendance on the Metropolitan Lectures is regarded as a condition essential to success.

"Nor do I aim at doing more, than to trace to its true origin the feeling which exists at present in favour of the London Schools of Medicine, as the means of showing, that there is no such necessary connexion between scientific instruction and crowded Hospitals, as should discourage us from attempting to supply the same facilities within our own walls to those, who may require only the former without any assistance from the latter.

"Inasmuch, indeed, as Lectures of whatever kinds which are given to a Medical Class, will have reference more or less to the profession for which they are meant to be preparatory, it would even seem preferable *cateris paribus* that the general Student should resort to Courses given in the University, which are intended to impart a knowledge of the broad principles of the Science, without any such local application, even if the option of attending the Metropolitan ones lay open before him."

Dr. Daubeny argues with pleasing eloquence that the retirement, the quiet, and the independence of a college life are favourable to the pursuit of physical science.

"That the great marts of commerce and industry may afford more favourable opportunities for applying the principles of science to useful purposes, is what I can readily understand—that amongst those great hives of men which are congregated in our large cities, there will be found more persons addicted to science than can be met with in smaller places, is plain from the doctrine of chances—but that the investigation of the general laws of matter—the prosecution of experiments requiring great abstraction of mind, as well as much continued physical exertion, and promising no immediate result beyond the pleasure of arriving at a new truth, should be best carried on amidst the bustle, the turmoil, the distractions of a crowded capital—the *funum, et opes, strepitumque Romæ*—seems contrary to all reason and analogy.

"A Wheatstone might be able to perfect his electric telegraph, or a Watt his steam engine, more readily in a large city than in the retirement of the country; but the great principle of electromagnetism, which guided the former, and the laws of latent heat which directed the latter to his useful invention, might have been worked out as readily in the retirement of a small University, as in the metropolis of Denmark or of Scotland.

"It was in the quiet of his Cambridge home that Newton brought to maturity the great truths of his Principia; and if the Atomic Theory of Dalton was promulgated at Manchester, it is probable that the first early glimpse of it had been obtained amongst the mountains of Cumberland.

"If, indeed, we refer to the important researches on various branches of natural knowledge which have been instituted in a neighbouring country, it will be found that it is from the smaller Universities of Germany, rather than from the larger ones, that they have for the most part emanated.

"It was in the obscure University of Giessen that Liebig worked out his great discoveries in organic chemistry, and initiated a large band of disciples in his new methods of research.

"It was from the University of Göttingen, in all respects less considerable than Oxford, that he

obtained his most active coadjutor in the eminent chemist, Wöhler.

"It was at Marburg, that Bunsen, the greatest experimentalist perhaps of the present day, completed his investigations on the most intricate and dangerous class of compounds that have ever yet fallen under the examination of the chemist.

"And so in the other natural sciences. Whilst Jena has the honour of giving birth to the researches on vegetable physiology which have rendered the name of Schleiden so illustrious, Tübingen has equal reason to be proud of that of Hugo Mohl in the same department. Nor have there been wanting physiologists and anatomists to do honour to the minor German Universities, such as Heidelberg, Halle, or Göttingen.

"The capital of Prussia, indeed, has reason to boast of a Mitscherlich; but it is a significant fact, that this philosopher, after having at an early age given proofs of his ability by one of the greatest of modern chemical discoveries, has for many years past contributed little to the general advancement of science.

"On the other hand, at Vienna, Prague, and Munich, where Universities exist in connexion with large capitals, in two of which indeed they are fostered, or it may be, impeded, by the presence of a Court, little, comparatively speaking, has been done towards enlarging the boundaries of knowledge, notwithstanding the larger emoluments which the professors enjoy, and the greater crowd of students that flock to their lectures."

Much as we agree with Dr. Daubeny in the foregoing remarks, the Professor loses sight here, it appears to us, of the argument as an educational question. Professor Sedgwick, a staunch University reformer, and member of the Cambridge Commission, has wisely stated his opinion that "the proper business of the Universities is not so much to advance the boundaries of science, as to methodise and digest the discoveries elsewhere made, and thus to embody them into the general patrimony of universal knowledge;" and we think Professor Daubeny errs in speaking disparagingly of these as "deep-rooted prepossessions," against which he can only hope to make head by an appeal to first principles, and to the practice of other countries.

In the following we most fully concur:—

"If Chemistry be regarded as useful, it is so in the eyes of a large portion of the community, because it may chance to aid the landholder in applying with greater advantage his manures, or for some other similar reason; if Physiology forms a desirable adjunct to a gentleman's education, it is because it imparts that general insight into the functions of the human frame, which may give him the power of regulating in some measure for himself his diet and mode of life, and may enable him to dispense with the services of a physician on every slight occasion.

"Reasons such as these could be alleged in behalf of the humblest of the useful arts, any one of which might, under certain circumstances, prove serviceable to those who were adepts in them; but the Physical Sciences now included in our course of study stand upon much higher ground, and, independently of their practical utility, rank among the means to be employed for disciplining the youthful understanding, and for preparing it for the future business of life.

"If this were once admitted—and a little more familiarity with the truths of Physical Science must, I am convinced, bring about its general recognition—the difficulties that have hitherto stood in the way of obtaining the appliances for carrying out on an adequate scale our courses of instruction in these departments would speedily vanish.

"So long as a knowledge of the laws of the material universe is regarded as only important to those under training for the Medical Profession, it is not surprising that many should object to a large outlay for the sake of so inconsiderable a portion of our Students; but once realized the principle which the late Statute has adopted as the basis of its enactments, and consider the Physical Sciences as much a part of general Education, as those branches

which form the subjects of examination in the other newly-established Schools, and the question of the erection of such a Museum as should supply the requisite means of instruction in this department, must be regarded as settled."

A museum illustrative of the characteristic types and varieties of forms of natural objects is all that is required in a University for the purposes of teaching; and for the encouragement of learners, there should be a fair proportion of emoluments and honours attaching to the department.

"If it be the fact, that scientific eminence has never been looked to as a passport to our collegiate emoluments—if none of those distinctions which recompense the student for his devotion to classical pursuits have ever been bestowed upon the zealous naturalist, or the diligent experimentalist—if, on the contrary, an addition to such occupations on the part of the youths who are destined for the University is discouraged by most parents and guardians as detrimental to academical success, I conceive that there are local circumstances enough to account for the neglect of physical science, without referring it to any law applicable to such institutions in general.

"Until, indeed, it has been ascertained, what might be the result, supposing that a certain proportion of our fellowships were awarded to young men of scientific pursuits; supposing the student who distinguished himself in science were placed on the same level in the estimation of his contemporaries, as if he had employed the same amount of mental exertion upon studies of a literary character; and supposing the activity of the professors in these departments were stimulated by the necessity of keeping pace with and of pushing forwards a band of earnest and active pupils; it cannot be said that the question as to the fitness of our English Universities for the prosecution of physical science has ever been fairly tested."

As an example of the old tory animus of the 'Quarterly' reviewer, we quote the following from his remarks on University education in Scotland:—

"The mass want a professional education, to begin at the age of sixteen or seventeen, and a general education to last up to that age; but the University is not the place, as we have shown, for a professional education; nor is it, for very obvious reasons, the place for a general education up to the age of sixteen or seventeen. To convert the Universities to this use would be simply to turn them into grammar schools, and to enlarge the numbers they educate at the cost of lowering the education. There could be no manner of use in such an arrangement. We have grammar schools already that supply education in this stage, and do not want the Universities for it. Nor could the education of boys, and the education of maturer academical students go on together in the same place. Our Universities could not become in this sense national without becoming like—we mean no disrespect—the Scotch Universities. The Scotch Universities are, indeed, institutions for all classes; they give a professional education to the medical man, and the curtailed general education to the tradesman. But Scotland is not on this account better off, but worse off than England. 'Erudition,' says Sir W. Hamilton, 'in every higher acceptance is in Scotland at a lower pass than in almost any other country of Europe.' The Universities of Scotland then supply its necessities, and do not raise its standard. We have Scotch University education in our grammar schools and our medical schools, and we have also what Scotland has not, that which is called University education."

The 'erudition,' to the rarity of which Sir William Hamilton refers, is not the result of the system of University instruction in Scotland, but of the poverty of the University endowments. There are no rich fellowships nor tutorships, affording leisure for entire devotion to particular studies, as in England. And after all, it is only in classical erudition that Scotland is chargeable with deficiency. In every department of mental and physical science, the average University education of Scotland is at least not inferior to that of the two southern seats of learning. At what grammar

schools' in England can a training be acquired similar to what the classes of philosophy in Scotland impart, under the instruction of such men as Playfair and Leslie, James Forbes and Sir William Hamilton? Does the Quarterly Reviewer pretend to say that the classical instruction of men like Sir Daniel Sandford and Professor Blackie is not equal to what is obtained under tutors of Oxford and Cambridge? The words of Dugald Stewart, forty years ago, are still too applicable to the condition of the English Universities:—

"Unwilling as I am to touch on a topic so hopeless as that of Academical Reform, I cannot dismiss this subject without remarking as a *fact*, which, at some future period will figure in literary history, that two hundred years after the date of Bacon's philosophical works, the antiquated routine of study, originally prescribed in times of scholastic barbarism and of popish superstition, should be still suffered to stand in the way of improvements, recommended at once by the present state of the sciences, and by the order which Nature follows in developing the intellectual faculties."

TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

The Learned Societies are about to commence their meetings for the Session 1853-4, and the exertions and personal attendance of all who wish well to the cause of literature, science, and the arts, are needed for their credit and advancement. Several important schemes have been projected, requiring the aid of Government—a New National Gallery, University Reform including a more effective System of Education in the Physical Sciences, a School of Industrial Instruction for the Working Classes, the Juxtaposition of the Societies, &c.—and to carry these out, there must be an unflinching co-operation of zeal and activity among the workers of established eminence. The country needs to be re-assured of the necessity of these new institutions. We have now arrived at a time when we shall either achieve an honourable and distinguished scientific position among the nations of Europe, or we shall fall into the background. But we have no fear of this. It is not likely that the Ministers, bearing in mind the concessions that were made to science and art in the last session of parliament, will fail to encourage the great work that has been so well begun. It must not be thought that the paucity of attendance of scientific men at the recent meeting of the British Association at Hull arose from any degree of apathy. We understand that not a few who were absent from that meeting are by no means pleased at the insinuations respecting their motives put forth a fortnight since by a contemporary. Their absence arose mainly, as we stated at the time, from the meeting being held so late in the year, at a period when the strength and energy of many had suffered from the toils of a long scientific session, and a month's retirement in one year out of many was needful for recruiting health. We are quite sure that there are no warmer admirers of the late President of the British Association, and no truer friends of that admirable and most useful institution, than the gentlemen so ungenerously, and, we fear we may with truth add, ignorantly, stigmatised by the 'Athenaeum.' We doubt not that the coming session will be an interesting and a busy one, and we sincerely hope that the great projects to which we have alluded will be found at the close to have made a substantial advance. For the consideration of the Societies we would suggest, whether it might not be a desirable and valuable measure to award Premiums for papers of special merit, such as are recorded in our next column, as having been given by the Institution of Civil Engineers.

The Five Academies composing the Institute of France held their annual public meeting on Tuesday, in Paris. M. Jomard presided, and each academy was represented by special delegates, as well as by several of its members. M. Jomard delivered a speech, in which he briefly traced the history of the Institute, and dwelt on the success with which it has braved the political storms that, within the

last fifty years, have swept over France. He also passed a warm eulogium on the late M. Arago. Some prizes were then distributed. M. Rossignol, of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, afterwards read a paper in which he combatted the tradition which ascribes to Demaratus, father of Tarquinius Priscus, king of Rome, the honour of having civilised Etruria. Then M. Franck, of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, read a paper on Paracelsus and Alchemy. M. Babinet, of the Academy of Sciences, followed with an excellent paper on Comets. Next came M. Halley, of the Academy of the Fine Arts, with a biographical and critical notice of the German organist Froberger. Finally, to be faithful to the Horatian maxim of mixing the agreeable with the useful, the meeting listened to the reading of a paper by M. Briffault, entitled 'Le monde à refaire.'

A committee has been formed in Paris for raising subscriptions for the purpose of erecting a "national" monument to the late François Arago. The committee is very numerous, and comprises the names of Sir D. Brewster, Professor Faraday, Mr. Airy, Baron Humboldt, M. Struve the Russian astronomer, and other eminent savans. It also comprises a great many Frenchmen of literary and scientific eminence, and amongst them M. Villemain, M. Mignet, M. Babinet, M. Decaisne, and M. Flourens. But some objection is taken to it in Paris, on the ground that M. Dupont (de l'Eure), M. Goudchaux, M. Odilon Barrot, M. Manin, ex-President of the Venetian Republic, and other noted political characters, have been allowed to join it; and that some of the most active members of it are seeking rather to do honour to Arago, in his political capacity as a staunch republican, than to Arago the great savant.

A preliminary meeting of the 'Bellot Testimonial Committee' was held on Wednesday at the apartments of the Geographical Society, under the presidency of Sir Roderick Murchison, when it was decided that a public meeting should be held at Willis's Rooms on Friday next, November 4th, at 2 p.m. The Premier and the First Lord of the Admiralty have both expressed their desire to co-operate with the noblemen and gentlemen of the committee, and from the deep interest attaching to the meeting, we doubt not that a large measure of sympathy will be elicited on the occasion. The case does not call for large subscriptions, but they should be numerous, and whatever is done should be done quickly.

The Council of the Institution of Civil Engineers have awarded the following Premiums:—1. A Telford Medal, to John Coode, for his 'Description of the Chesil Bank.' 2. A Telford Medal, to Daniel Kinnear Clark, for his 'Experimental Investigation of the Principles of Locomotive Boilers.' 3. A Telford Medal, to William Alexander Brooks, for his paper 'On the Improvement of Tidal Navigation and Drainage.' 4. A Telford Medal, to John Barker Huntington, for his paper entitled 'Observations on Salt Water and its Application to the Generation of Steam.' 5. A Telford Medal, to Henry Potter Burt, for his paper 'On the Nature and Properties of Timber, with notices of several methods now in use for its Preservation from Decay.' 6. A Telford Medal, to Thomas Duncan, for his 'Description of the Liverpool Corporation Water Works.' 7. A Telford Medal, to Charles William Siemens, for his paper 'On the Conversion of Heat into Mechanical Effect.' 8. A Telford Medal, to Benjamin Cheverton, for his paper 'On the use of Heated Air as a Motive Power.' 9. A Telford Medal, to James Barrett, for his paper 'On the Construction of Fire-Proof Buildings.' 10. A Council Premium of Books, suitably bound and inscribed, to Joshua Richardson, for his paper 'On the Pneumatics of Mines.' 11. A Council Premium of Books, suitably bound and inscribed, to William George Armstrong, for his paper 'On the Concussion of Pump Valves.' 12. A Council Premium of Books, suitably bound and inscribed, to Robert Rawlinson, for his paper 'On the Drainage of Towns.' 13. A Council Premium of Books, suitably bound and inscribed, to John Sewell, for his paper 'On Locomotive Boilers.'

The Mansion-House has this week been the scene of an unusual and important assemblage, the Lord Mayor having presided over a meeting in connexion with the Jubilee of the British and Foreign Bible Society. Letters of apology for unavoidable absence were read from the Archbishop of Canterbury, Lord John Russell, and other distinguished personages. The Earl of Shaftesbury, the Hon. and Rev. Mr. Villiers, Mr. Hudson Gurney, Dr. Tideman, the foreign secretary of the Society, and others, moved the various resolutions. A prominent subject in the proceedings was the opening in China for the circulation of the Scriptures, and the resolution of the Society to send a million copies of the New Testament, the funds for which the Lord Mayor said would be easily raised in the city of London alone, and would form a noble and graceful gift from this central seat of commerce and Christianity to a less favoured nation.

The removal of Temple Bar has again been the subject of public discussion. We have always thought that the obstruction to the traffic was exaggerated, or at least that the removal of the gate, without the more difficult operation of widening the street, would afford little perceptible relief. The men of trade and business in the city are likely to estimate aright the practical amount of the inconvenience, and we find that they are in this case the conservatives, while journalists, writing in their suburban retreats, are the destructives. A petition has lately been sent to the Court of Common Council from shop-keepers in the vicinity, praying for the retention of the Bar. Every historical and literary association opposes the removal. Though dating only from the time of Sir Christopher Wren, it is connected with most of the memorable events and illustrious personages of the last two centuries of English history.

At Tamworth, the anniversary meeting of the Free Library has been the occasion of 'a demonstration' on the subject of popular education. A Conference of Delegates from the Mechanics' Institutes of the Midland Counties was held at the same time. Sir Robert Peel, the President of the Library, the Earl of Yarborough, Dr. Lyon Playfair, Mr. Adderley, M.P., Mr. Monckton Milnes, M.P., and Mr. Foster, Secretary of the London Society of Arts, delivered addresses suitable to the occasion. At a similar meeting at Bradford, Mr. Cobden's speech contained matter of unusual interest in connexion with the same subject, dwelling on the importance of instruction in the principles of social and political economy forming part of national education. He enforced his statements by appealing to the prevalence of combinations and strikes, which never occur in the same reckless way in America, and would be unknown in England if the people were more enlightened and better informed. All these movements will do something to keep the subject of national education before the attention of statesmen and legislators; but we fear that ecclesiastical dissensions and intrigues will still, as heretofore, prove the chief obstacle to immediate practical measures on a scale adequate to the requirements of the people. In Scotland, there is now a greater approach to unanimity in regard to government aid, and probably the difficult problem will be there first experimentally solved.

One of the most distinguished divines of Scotland died suddenly last week, the Rev. Robert Gordon, D.D., long minister of the High Church, Edinburgh. He was a man of great intellectual power and philosophical character, and his style of pulpit oratory was of a fervid yet dignified cast, rarely witnessed in our times. With the exception of sermons, his name was not known by published works in the literary world, but as a preacher and pastor, and one of the leading men in the ecclesiastical and educational movements of Scotland, he has long occupied an honourably prominent place. His funeral, which took place on Wednesday, was attended by the various public bodies of the city, and by a large concourse of the people, in testimony of respect to the memory of one who, since the death of Dr. Chalmers, has been the most highly esteemed of the Scottish clergy.

A French paper states that Lord Brougham has placed the following inscription over the entrance door of his château at Cannes:—

"Inveni portum; spes et fortuna, valet;
Sat me iustis: ludite nunc alios."

The noble and learned Lord's neighbours construe this as an announcement of his intention to retire from public life, and to pass the remainder of his days amongst them in the genial climate of the Var.—This announcement has been going the round of the English papers, but we suspect it is one of the many jokes of which the venerable ex-chancellor and 'citizen of all nations' is made the constant subject. The inscription, it will be remembered, is that which *Gil Blas* places over his door. Lord Brougham is as little likely to sit down quietly, while health and life remain, as the restless hero of *Le Sage's* fiction.

The French Government has just granted 6000*l.* sterling towards the expenses of purchasing and demolishing houses at Vienne, department of the Isère, for the purpose of exposing to public view an ancient temple of Augustus and Livia. Yet though thus liberal—and this is no isolated case—it allows a large sum annually for the restoration of historical monuments. Verily, "they do manage some things better in France" than we do at home.

A Russian *savant*, M. Jacobi, has invented an apparatus for employing electricity in attacking whales. By means of it several successive shocks can be given to the huge leviathan, and it is assumed that it will thereby be rendered powerless.

Madame Ida Pfeiffer, the great traveller, has, say the German papers, written to friends in Berlin and Vienna to say that she intends to abandon the prosecution of her voyages in the Indian Archipelago, and to return to Europe forthwith.

The first of the Wednesday Evening Concerts at Exeter Hall passed off with brilliancy and success, under the superintendence of Mr. Benedict, who has taken the place of Mr. Stammers in the management of these popular entertainments. Felicien David's Symphony and Cantata, Ode-Symphony, as it is termed, formed the first part of the programme, and was well performed. The work will not excite the enthusiasm of English audiences, as it did the Parisians, on its first being brought out. The band and chorus displayed an efficiency which promises well for the success of Mr. Benedict's series of concerts. The second part of the programme, on Wednesday evening, consisted of a miscellaneous list of pieces, vocal and instrumental. Miss Arabella Goddard and Mr. Lindsay Sloper, and Signor Cioffi with his trombone, were the chief performers, and Misses Dolby, Poole, Isaacs, Cicely Nott, and Stabbach, were heard in favourite and appropriate pieces. A new singer, Mlle. Marie, received a deserved welcome for the style in which she gave an air from the *Lombardi*. The overture to *Oberon* commenced, and that to *Figaro* concluded, the miscellaneous part of the concert, the Queen's Anthem, according to usage, being introduced.

At Brighton there are various musical events, but the performers and audiences are unlike other provincial towns, and present the appearances of a fragment of a London musical season at the seaside. Madame Grisi and Mario, supported by other artists, are engaged for a series of performances of the Italian Opera in the theatre during the month of November. They are to appear this evening at a concert in the Town Hall. The second of a series of Quartett Concerts takes place at the Pavilion, Messrs. Blagrove, Hausman, Lazarus, and Gutteridge, being the executants.

The Sacred Harmonic Society, under the direction of M. Costa, commenced its season last evening with Handel's Coronation Anthem, Zadok the Priest, the Dettingen Te Deum, and Mozart's *Scena*, No. 12.

The Grand Opera at Paris has obtained the success of a new opera, in three acts, by M. Limnander, the Belgian composer. It is called *Le Maître Chanteur*, and is founded on some event in old German history. Many of the morceaux display freshness, beauty, and power; others are defi-

cient in originality. On the whole, the piece will add greatly to the composer's renown. The *libretto*, by a M. Trianon, is execrable and absurd. The same theatre is busily engaged in preparing Niedermeyer's *Fronde*. At the Opéra Comique, a new comic opera, called *Colette*, has been brought out. The *libretto* is by M. Planard, and the music by M. Justin Cadeaux, author of two operas of some note. It was very favourably received—almost all new pieces are, now-a-days, by the way—and is not without merit; but the composer seems to have drawn largely on his memory.

Colonel Ragani has been definitively appointed Director of the Italian Theatre at Paris, and he promises to begin his season in about a fortnight. He has engaged Mario, Tamburini, Rossi, Mdmes. Alboni, Frezzolini, and other artists of note. He intends to open with the *Cenerentola*.

A new opera by Verdi, called *Il Trovatore*, has been produced at Florence. It is highly spoken of by the local critics.

The Haymarket Theatre was reopened on Monday, and, by force of paint and gilding, has attracted crowded audiences. The decorations are elegant and appropriate, and the reconstruction of the stage will allow of much greater facilities for scenic effect. Should Mr. Buckstone be able to surprise the town with a good working company, we give him hopes of success; but not otherwise. Mr. George Vandenhoff, a neat and gentlemanly actor from the provinces, has been performing Hamlet this week, but the company is not equal to such a play. A new comedy is announced to be performed at the Princess's on Tuesday, entitled *The Lancers*; or, *The Gentleman's Son*; and to meet the taste for the marvellous, the Corsican horrors are to be revived. The Lyceum is to be opened for the season on Monday, with Mr. Wright in a new piece, entitled *The Commencement of a Bad Farce made all Wright at last*.

At the Théâtre Français, at Paris, a new three-act comedy, called *Murillo*, by a M. Langlé, has been produced. It is of no great merit, and is, in fact, only a vaudeville diluted into a comedy. It would seem that the higher order of dramatic talent is sadly on the decline in France, when such pieces are produced at the leading theatre. The piece, however, has one great attraction—it contains a song for which Meyerbeer has deigned to compose the music. At the Ambigu theatre, a melodrama of, in the fullest expression of the term, "harrowing interest," has been produced, and has made a great hit. One of its incidents is a child of tender years cast afloat on a piece of ice in the Arctic Ocean—you see the poor creature buffeting with the roaring waves;—but by one of those fortunate accidents which only occur in melodramas, she is drifted safely into Mexico! And then there is a villain of first-rate atrocity. But it is not necessary to go into detail, as the piece is one of those which cannot possibly escape reproduction at one or other of our theatres. It is capably acted, especially by Mad. Laurent. Its title is *La Prière des Naufragés*.

M. Bouffé, ex-director of the Vaudeville theatre at Paris—not the actor of that name—has just departed this life. In accordance with the French custom, speeches were delivered over his grave. In one of them, by his successor, a flaming eulogium was passed on him for having brought out the *Dame aux Camelias* and the *Filles de Marbre*—two of the most scandalously immoral pieces which the Parisian stage has seen for many a long day—and that, every one will guess, is saying a good deal. The idea of talking of such things at the brink of the grave, and of coupling such things with the name of a man whose soul had fled to its last account, is terrible to think of.

M. Merville, a French dramatic author, has just died. He produced, amongst other things, the *Famille Glinet*, the *Deux Anglais*, and the *Première Affaire*—pieces which had some success in their time. It is said that King Louis XVIII., whose refined literary tastes are well known, had some hand in the first-named little comedy.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

- Monday.**—School of Mines.—(Dr. Hofmann on Chemistry, 10 a.m.)—(Professor Hunt on Physics, 12 a.m.)
Tuesday.—Linnean, 8 p.m.
 — Pathological, 8 p.m.
 — School of Mines.—(Dr. Percy on Metallurgy, 11 a.m.)—(Professor Smyth on Mineralogy, 2 p.m.)
Wednesday.—Geological, 8 p.m.—(1. Mr. J. W. Dawson, on the Coal Measures of the South of Scotland, Nova Scotia; 2. Messrs. H. Poole and J. W. Dawson, on the Coal Measures at the Albion Mines, Pictou, Nova Scotia; 3. Mr. Joshua Trimmer, F.G.S., on the Superficial Deposits of the Isle of Wight.)
 — School of Mines.—(Professor Hunt on Physics, 12 a.m.)—(Professor Smyth on Mineralogy, 2 p.m.)
Thursday.—Zoological, 3 p.m.—(General business.)
 — School of Mines.—(Dr. Hofmann on Chemistry, 10 a.m.)—(Professor Smyth on Mineralogy, 2 p.m.)
Friday.—School of Mines.—(Dr. Percy on Chemistry, 10 a.m.)—(Professor Hunt on Physics, 12 a.m.)
 — Botanical, 8 p.m.
Saturday.—Medical, 8 p.m.—(General Meeting.)

VARIETIES.

The Wiltshire Archaeological Society.—"In the last number of your valuable literary periodical, you express surprise and regret that "the Wiltshire Archaeological, &c. Society," at Devizes, on the 12th instant, did not remark on the discoveries then made, or making, near Salisbury, by Mr. Akerman. In reply, I beg to say that the omission did not arise from any wilful neglect, or from indifference to the researches of the learned and zealous Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries; but from the multiplicity of subjects which were before our inaugural meeting, and from the limited time (one day) which was prescribed to the first assembling of a new Institution. On that occasion there were the following necessary essential business to transact—a preliminary meeting of the provisional committee, to prepare the routine occupation and decision of the assembled members, who had to settle the laws and constitution of the Society, appoint officers, and prepare the proceedings of the day—i. e., the rules and regulations, reports of secretaries respecting preliminary proceedings, &c. These being unanimously agreed to—for they appeared to be very clear, specific, and judicious—the President read an address, most admirably adapted to the time, the subject, and the objects of the Society, and was consequently hailed with acclamations and thanks by a company of about 150 ladies and gentlemen. After a dinner at the Bear Inn, noted in the annals of art as the infant home of Sir Thomas Lawrence, the company returned to the town-hall to hold a *conversazione*, and hear a well-written paper by one of the honorary secretaries, the Rev. T. E. Jackson. This address treasured so much on the night, that there was not time for other papers or business, and after half an hour devoted to the museum, the company dispersed. The collection was open to the public on the following day, and was resorted to by numerous visitors. It was also arranged that some of the committee would attend in the evening, when, being voted to the chair, I ventured to recommend to the company, and particularly to the younger part of my auditors, the various objects of amusement and interest involved in the science of Topography. Mr. Cunningham explained the great leading features of the geology of the vicinity, and concluded by reading a short but well-written paper, by the Rev. Mr. Smith, on the ornithology of Wiltshire. From this very short account of a long day's amusing work, it must be evident there was not time to comment on, or even advert to, many subjects which pressed on the attention of different members, and that Mr. Akerman's laudable labours at another part of the country were not brought under review. He is a North Wiltshire man, is a worthy citizen of the county, and, I hope, will give the Wiltshire Archaeological and Natural History Society the benefit of his favourable interpretation and aid, as it has had and shall have of your well-wisher,

"JOHN BRITTON."

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40	1 11 10	1 13 9	1 15 10	1 18 1	2 0 6	3 8 3

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20	1 19 7	1 15 8	45	3 15 9	3 8 2
25	2 2	1 19 9	50	4 9 4	4 9 4
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